

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The following statement has been issued by the United States Department of the Interior.

The Secretary of the Interior announces the appointment of a consulting committee of nine which will assist the Commissioner of Education in the direction of a nation-wide study of high schools, junior high schools, and junior colleges. The last Congress authorized such a study to be made over a period of three years and appropriated \$50,000 for the current fiscal year.

Under the present plans, the director of the survey will be the Commissioner of Education. He will be assisted by this committee of nine members, all of whom will receive actual and necessary traveling expenses only. Their services at such meetings as are necessary will be offered without charge to the United States. A number of specialists will be called to Washington for short periods to assist in interpreting the data which are gathered. The chief of this group, who will be associate director of the survey, is Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago. The members of the consulting committee appointed by Secretary Wilbur are H. V. Church, superintendent of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School, Cicero, Illinois, and secretary of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association; Ellwood P. Cubberley, dean of the School of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University; James B. Edmonson, dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan; Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education, University of Chicago; Charles R. Mann, director of the American Council on Education;

A. B. Meredith, commissioner of education of the state of Connecticut; John K. Norton, director of research, National Education Association; Joseph Roemer, professor of secondary education, University of Florida; and William F. Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University.

The recommendations of the Commissioner of Education for the organization of the survey call also for an advisory committee of thirty.

#### THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

The following statement has been issued by the United States Department of the Interior with reference to the division of the Department which was formerly known as the Bureau of Education and is now officially designated "Office of Education."

William John Cooper, commissioner of education, after six months of study, has worked out a scheme of reorganization for the Office of Education, which has been approved by Secretary Wilbur, his chief, and which is immediately to become effective.

The fundamental principle upon which the reorganization has been based is a conception of the Office of Education as a research organization rather than an administrative agency. Under the new organization its policy will be to abandon as far as possible whatever it has been doing in an administrative way and to concentrate upon fact-finding, surveys, and research in the many fields of education.

The chief of its administrative functions of the past has been the supervision of the educational system of Alaska in so far as it applied to the natives. The Office will, in so far as it can, transfer those administrative functions to other agencies.

The set-up of the work of the Office of Education under the reorganization will be as follows: an administrative division under a chief clerk, a division of educational research and investigations under an assistant commissioner, a division of publications under an editor in chief, a library division under a librarian, an educational-service division under a service chief, and a division of major educational surveys under the Commissioner himself.

"The Office of Education," said Commissioner Cooper in explaining the reorganization, "was created for the particular purpose of ascertaining facts about education in the United States, organizing and disseminating these data, and conducting researches of value to American schools and colleges.

"The Office has never been provided with an adequate staff, and additions frequently have been made upon demand of organized groups of educators. This system appears to me to have certain disadvantages which ought not to be overlooked. It encourages organized groups to become active in demanding service of the Office and the addition of specialists to render this service; to look upon these specialists once appointed as the peculiar agents and perhaps even propagandists of the interests of such groups. It encourages other groups to

organize and urge the appointment of representatives of their interests to the Office staff. It tends to develop a personnel in the Office of Education which reflects current organization in the school world rather than an organization designed to carry out the specific purposes for which the Office of Education exists.

"The first step in the development of a new organization has already been taken by the Secretary of the Interior. The Personnel Classification Board has reclassified the office of the commissioner, and the Secretary has created the office of assistant commissioner. The first appointee to this assistant commissionership reported for duty on October 1.

"Two other positions of very great importance to the work of the Office of Education should be reclassified. These are the librarian and the editor in chief.

"During the month of July the office of editor in chief became vacant through the sudden illness and death of James C. Boykin. He served this office for a salary which was entirely inadequate for the responsibilities devolving upon an editor in chief in a technical establishment. I believe that the position of editor in chief should be reclassified and should rank in salary and in dignity with the position of librarian.

"Every position in the Office of Education is important. Some positions, however, are of such a key character that the carrying-on of the responsibilities connected with them should not depend upon the health, tenure, or life of any human being. Positions of this character are: the chief clerk, the editor in chief, the librarian, and the chief of the Division of Higher Education. In the past but one of these, the editor in chief, has had an assistant. It is my recommendation that there be assistant chiefs for all of these offices.

"The need of a larger fund for printing is pressing.

"Funds are needed for the study of foreign school systems and for such researches in American education as in the judgment of the Secretary of the Interior should be undertaken. During the last few years comparatively little has been presented to the American school people along these lines. Changes of far-reaching importance in the school systems of other nations have come about since the Great War. At home the need for special study sometimes becomes imperative without much advance notice.

"The library of the Office of Education is one of the world's great libraries in a narrow field—that of education and administration of schools and colleges. Here is a great depository of original reports, catalogues, and textbooks without access to which the history of American education cannot be written.

"In addition, there is a remarkable collection of textbooks used in American schools; 7,295 of these have been catalogued. There are approximately 8,500 on the shelves which have never been catalogued. One of the most important pieces of work which should be done is to catalogue these books and to issue for the use of students of education bibliographies in the various school curriculum fields, such as reading, spelling, and arithmetic. We should have in the library now three or four additional members of the staff to do this work and to carry

on the usual functions of our library. New demands for library service are being made upon the library.

"I have recommended in this connection that a bulletin on statistics of libraries be printed every four years and that there be incorporated into it a directory of librarians. A special committee representing the American Library Association is co-operating with the Office of Education in determining what information should be incorporated in such a bulletin."

#### ATHLETICS

In response to requests from such organizations as the Association of American Colleges, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, and the National Collegiate Athletic Association, and from numerous individuals, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching began in 1926 a study of athletics in typical colleges, universities, and secondary schools in the United States and Canada. The study was conducted in 112 colleges and universities and 18 secondary schools. A staff of four experts made the study and prepared the report, which covers 384 pages. The report is entitled *American College Athletics*.

The facts which are presented in the report show clearly that competitive athletics in colleges and secondary schools are in general in an unwholesome condition. Practices which are contrary to the spirit of fair amateur sport are very common, even in respectable institutions. The charge is made that commercialism has become so prevalent that administrative officers frequently condone evasions of rules and that these officers corrupt the moral standards of students by adopting measures intended to promote the success of athletic teams when it is known that these measures are not fair.

The report specifies institutions in which unfair practices have been found, and there can be no doubt that publicity will promote much-needed reforms in many quarters. The experts who prepared the report are in a much better position to make impartial statements than any single college or athletic association would be. The general belief that all is not well in American athletics has up to this time been based on rumor or restricted knowledge. There is now available a definite body of clearly stated evidence. Institutions are called upon to unite in the effort to reform a situation which is distinctly bad and subversive of American idealism.

This is not the place to attempt a detailed review of the contents



of the report. Secondary-school officers will certainly do well to read the report, which can be secured without charge from the Carnegie Foundation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

One chapter of the report, entitled "Athletics in American Schools," deals with athletics in secondary schools. There are also numerous references in other chapters to the relations of schoolboys to college athletics. A number of paragraphs may be quoted.

The ultimate justification for athletics in secondary schools, public or private, is the welfare of the individual boy or girl. Any contribution that athletics can make to his welfare should be fostered; all that tends to impair it should be discouraged and, if possible, abolished. Needless to say, the capitalizing of the athletic skill of a group of players to obtain funds for school buildings or equipment is of less benefit to school children than to the purses of their parents. This phase of commercialism in school athletics may be no less vicious than the secret and dishonest capitalizing of individual athletic skill to obtain a college education. No school or college course is worth purchasing by a living lie. Probably those who have covertly bought for money or procured by underhand methods the services of athletes for college or school teams have never paused to consider thoroughly the implications of their conduct from the point of view of truth. They have not realized that their machinations have impaired the potential benefits of their cause and operated to corrupt the moral fiber of the schoolboys they have suborned. . . .

As matters now stand, the American schoolboy bears comparatively little of the responsibility for his athletics. His elders organize and coach his teams, devise his plays, arrange his schedules, finance his contests, and in general perform the great bulk of his work. Between the first and the last years of the secondary schools there appears to be little difference in the treatment of pupils with respect to the responsibilities of athletics. Fortunately, to this generalization there exist important exceptions, but the fact remains that we tend to neglect what might be made one of the most advantageous factors in the growth of the school pupil as an individual—maturing under responsibility. The consideration so often urged to the effect that school athletics have become too complex and exacting to trust any of their essentials to boys and girls is a commentary not only upon athletics but upon the quality and results of our educational processes. In this respect, Canadian schools, whether or not from their closer relation to England, appear to have advanced beyond the schools of the United States, or perhaps rather to have clung to an educational tradition which in the mother-country bears much good fruit. If it be true that our school athletics have grown too complicated to be dealt with by boys and girls, it would appear to be high time that they were modified from this point of view. Granted that the high-school Freshman can be expected to sustain little, if any, responsibility for his sports, nevertheless the older boy or girl, under wise

guidance, might bear much. The best ideals and practices of physical education in high schools recognize a rising scale of maturity and provide means for its eventual use. Its neglect when school athletics are divorced from physical education only makes their union the more necessary to the welfare of the individual pupil. . . .

It has long been recognized that the influence of the college upon many phases of high-school athletics has been and still is far from salutary. High-school events are still modeled too closely after college athletics. Not infrequently they are obviously unsuited to the physiological age and ability of high-school pupils. The medical reasons that underlie these statements are seldom clearly comprehended. It is well known that in the development of the adolescent each organ has its own "growth inning." The growth inning of the heart, for example, comes late in the period of development. Hence, it follows that the heart of the average fifteen-year-old boy is smaller in proportion to the size of his body than will be the case when he has reached the age of twenty years. Now, it is also well recognized that cross-country runs are a severe test of a man's endurance even at college age. Yet such events still find place in the athletic programs of high schools, although not usually to the extent that they were found at one school, where, according to the principal, several cross-country runs were held over a four-mile course. The report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association on Health Problems in Education expresses the conviction that endurance runs and crew races are contra-indicated at high-school age.

Enough has perhaps been set down to indicate that, although conditions of high-school athletics that affect the health of pupils have improved during recent years, they are, to say the least, scarcely ideal. The work of competent heads of state departments of physical education and of certain directors of state-wide high-school athletic associations is commendable. It is necessary, however, that school boards, by close attention and study, should learn of the conditions that surround athletic competition in the schools under their charge, that principals give more heed to the details of high-school athletics, and that more parents should be brought to take an intelligent interest in the athletic activities of their children. . . .

Whatever other purposes high-school tournaments may serve, they enable coaches and others similarly interested to see schoolboy athletes at their sports and to establish personal contacts with the more promising. Some coaches contend that they do not attend high-school tournaments for purposes of recruiting. Testimony from high-school athletes, however, indicates that coaches who attend tournaments do not neglect their opportunities in this direction. Clearly, the cure for the situation is not more stringent rules, which might tend to lessen the activity temporarily but could do little toward permanent improvement. As long as high-school tournaments are held, the only remedy for the abuse is that coaches shall voluntarily refrain from practices that are hostile to the best interests of college sport.

The recruiting of American college athletes, be it active or passive, professional or non-professional, has reached the proportions of nation-wide commerce. In spite of the efforts of not a few teachers and principals who have comprehended its dangers, its effect upon the character of the schoolboy has been profoundly deleterious. Its influence upon the nature and quality of American higher education has been no less noxious. The element that demoralizes is the subsidy, the monetary or material advantage that is used to attract the schoolboy athlete. It is seldom lacking in the general process of gathering "a winning team."

#### CHICAGO POLITICIAN MAKES COMPLETE RETRACTION

During the hearings before the Chicago Board of Education prior to the dismissal of Superintendent William McAndrew, a great deal of time was devoted to listening to John J. Gorman, a lawyer and former Congressman, who made statements intended to show that Superintendent McAndrew had introduced unpatriotic teaching into the schools. In the course of his so-called "testimony," this lawyer and former Congressman took occasion to refer to Muzzey's *American History*. He made such statements about the book as follows: "An insidious, vile lot of pro-British propaganda, unfit to be put in the hands of our school children." Professor Muzzey instituted suit for libel.

On October 11, 1929, the following letter was forwarded to Professor Muzzey by Mr. Gorman.

I write to retract the charges that I made concerning your textbooks in use in the public schools. As you have already been advised, the letter which I addressed to Mayor Thompson, dated August 24, 1927, criticizing your textbook *American History* was not written by me but was prepared entirely by another person. I had not at the time read your book to which this letter referred, and I made the mistake of signing the letter because of the confidence that I then had in this person and his statements. I have since found that I was misled in so doing.

I greatly regret if in this letter to the Mayor, in my testimony before the Board of Education at the McAndrew trial, or in any other statement made by me, I have seemed to reflect in any way upon your motives in writing these textbooks or upon your character as a patriotic citizen, for I now realize that I had no basis for casting such aspersions.

A careful study of your textbooks discloses nothing which I would criticize, and I consider the books well adapted to use in the public schools.

You are at liberty to make this letter public and to use it in any way that you may see fit so as to remove so far as possible any wrong impression that may have gone abroad from anything that I have said or done.

A few days after this letter was written, one of the members of the Chicago Board of Education introduced a resolution at a regular meeting of that body declaring that the Board tendered its apology to Superintendent McAndrew and to the citizens of Chicago for the action which it took largely on the basis of the Gorman testimony. The resolution was referred to a committee and later indefinitely postponed.

Neither Professor Muzzey nor William McAndrew needs to be vindicated before the American public. The teaching profession of this country needs to be aroused, however, to a realization of the necessity of devising an organization which shall protect its members against the type of assault that the politicians of Chicago made on Superintendent McAndrew. During the hearings before the Chicago Board of Education, the absurdity of which is now exposed by this retraction, Superintendent McAndrew stood practically alone. The Department of Superintendence had a committee on the functions and rights of superintendents, but this committee refused to take any steps to prevent the injustice that was done. The politicians worked their will—clumsily and only with great effort, as is shown by the revelation now made. The important fact is, however, that they worked their will. Long months after Superintendent McAndrew's dismissal the fear of conviction of libel brought out the truth although no action had been taken by the largest, and in many ways the most influential, profession in America.

No one can fail to draw from this whole occurrence certain highly significant lessons for the future of American education.

#### OBJECTIVES OF DETROIT HIGH SCHOOLS

In an article published in the *Detroit Educational Bulletin*, Edwin L. Miller, who is the administrative head of the secondary schools in the Detroit school system, formulates as follows the fundamental principles which are accepted as the objectives of the high schools under his supervision:

1. It is the policy of the Detroit high schools to reduce failures to the minimum.
2. To do this, as well as to meet the individual and group needs of our pupils, we have set up the following curriculums: (a) general, (b) language (or college preparatory), (c) commercial, and (d) technical.

3. The general curriculum is fundamentally a course in citizenship and in the vocations.

4. The college-preparatory curriculum includes difficult studies in language, mathematics, and science. No pupil should be allowed to undertake this curriculum unless his previous work is of at least a B grade, unless he has a total achievement above average, and unless he is recommended by his teachers as having qualities of industry and character which make his success in this work probable.

5. As the commercial and technical courses prepare for vocations requiring a high degree of skill, a high standard of achievement is maintained in these. Pupils who do not reach this standard will fail.

6. As far as possible, those taking the four curriculums are segregated in their houses, home rooms, and classes.

7. Homogeneous groups may be set up in each curriculum if it seems advisable.

8. All instruction should be adapted to fit individual needs.

9. Guidance and counseling are considered essential.

10. Adjustment classes are to be set up whenever this is possible and desirable.

11. Principals should discuss with their teachers the meaning of education in terms of present-day requirements. Each of the four curriculums aims to prepare students for a different vocational end. The first curriculum will eventually be taken by the great majority of high-school pupils, especially during the first two years. Since this group is becoming the majority group, in a sense it is the most important group. The art of teaching is more clearly expressed by adapting instruction to the needs of pupils than by failing those not able to reach arbitrary or artificial or even real academic standards. Standards in any one of the curriculums must be very different from the standards of the others. It all falls back on the meaning of education or the answer to the question, Why are we educating these children?

The foregoing declaration of principles has been subscribed to by all of the Detroit high-school principals just as the Fathers of the Republic signed the Constitution.

Our objective henceforth is not to cast out all of those boys and girls for whom certain fixed standards are unattainable but to make of every one of them the best possible citizen and the happiest possible individual.

#### PRINCIPALS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK STATE

The State Department of Education of New York recently published a bulletin entitled *Study of the Secondary School Principal in New York State*. This bulletin was prepared by W. W. Coxe, director of the Educational Research Division of the State Depart-

ment of Education. The following summary presents the major findings of the study.

The principal of a city high school is generally a college graduate. About one-third have the Master's degree. One-fifth of them majored or minored in education in their undergraduate work, and one-fourth have a graduate major in education. One-half have taken summer or extension work. One-fifth report no professional training. One-eighth do a little teaching, but none teaches more than two subjects. They generally hold certificates good for life. On the average, they have taught more than twenty years, eight or nine years being in the present position. Their salaries range from \$1,500 to \$6,400. The median salaries are: first-class cities, \$5,188; second-class cities, \$4,667; third-class cities, \$3,688.

The principal of a village high school is generally a college graduate. About one-third have the Master's degree. One-tenth have majored or minored in education in undergraduate work, and two-fifths have graduate majors in education. Thus, a much larger proportion have graduate work in education than was found among the city principals. Two-thirds have had summer or extension work. Only one-fourteenth report no professional training, which is in sharp contrast to the one-fifth of city principals without such training. More than one-half teach, sometimes as many as three subjects. A slightly larger proportion than of city-school principals hold permanent or life certificates. They have taught, on the average, fourteen years, five years of which have been in the present position. Their salaries range from \$1,500 to \$4,900, with a median of \$2,903.

The principals in supervisory districts have generally attended college or normal school. Three-fourths of them have college training. About one-tenth have the Master's degree. One-sixth majored or minored in education in college, and a slightly larger proportion have a graduate major in education. One-half have had summer or extension work. One-sixth report no professional training. In this respect they are intermediate between the city and village principals. Only one-quarter are entirely free from teaching. Another quarter teach two subjects. The other half are scattered, some teaching as many as six subjects. They are teaching under a greater variety of certificates, and fewer have life or permanent certificates than have city or village principals. On the average, they have taught ten years, of which two and one-half have been in the present position. Their salaries have a very wide range, from \$1,000 to \$7,000, with a median of \$2,445.

#### A NEW PUBLICATION

The School of Education of the University of Michigan issued in October the first number of a publication entitled *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*. The *Bulletin* is to appear on the fifteenth of each month from October to May, inclusive. It



contains articles, reports of investigations, and items of news relating to the University of Michigan and the School of Education.

The bulletin is one of the many manifestations of the energetic policy of the new administration under Dean J. B. Edmonson.

#### FELLOWSHIP IN SAFETY EDUCATION

The following announcement has been issued by the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters.

The National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters offers a graduate fellowship of \$1,000 available January 1, 1930, for a study, in the Department of Home Economics of the University of Chicago, of home safety as an index of good home management. The study will be made under the guidance of an advisory committee which includes representatives of the American Home Economics Association, National Organizations for Public Health Nursing, and the National Safety Council.

Applications for the fellowship, to which only those graduate students are eligible who have not more than a year more of graduate work before taking their doctorate, should be made to Albert W. Whitney, National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, One Park Avenue, New York City.

This is the seventh of a series of graduate fellowships having to do with various phases of safety that have been maintained by the National Bureau. The most recent of the theses published by the Bureau in this series is by Dr. Herbert J. Stack, holder of a fellowship at Columbia University last year, and is entitled "Safety Education in the Secondary Schools."

#### OBSERVATION OF GERMAN EDUCATION

The following announcement has been issued by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University.

The Prussian government has invited a group of American educators to visit schools in Germany next summer. The tour will start from Hamburg June 22 and will conclude August 3. The International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, is co-operating with the Prussian government in arranging the trip.

Fifteen of the outstanding school systems of Germany will be studied, including all types of schools—elementary schools, secondary schools, special schools, and universities. A representative of the ministry of education will accompany the group and will serve as interpreter.

An opportunity will be given either during or immediately after the tour for members to see the Passion Play at Oberammergau.

Inquiries should be addressed to Dr. Thomas Alexander, International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University.



## THE SCHOOL AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

In the *Wilson Bulletin*, a magazine for librarians published by the H. W. Wilson Company, Tommie Dora Barker discusses from the librarian's point of view a problem which is of vital concern to educators. The problem is stated clearly in the following paragraphs.

The agencies that have been evolved in our democratic organization for taking care of the processes concerned with the acquisition and distribution of knowledge are, of course, the public schools and the public library. Each has its own contribution to make, and each has developed its own technique for accomplishing the desired ends. The function of the public schools is concerned with the more formal processes of teaching which has for its end the acquisition of the tools of learning—learning how to think and cultivating the ability to pursue knowledge independently. The function of the public library is to make available all discovered knowledge as it is recorded in books and to stimulate that intellectual curiosity which will lead people to add to the fulness of life by extending the horizons of their minds and the content of their experience by appropriating and incorporating into their lives the thoughts and experiences of all the ages.

The work of the two institutions is complementary, and there should be mutual recognition of their respective functions and the fullest co-operation in integrating the activities of each for the attainment of the ends.

There are in practice three forms of organization of school library service in political units maintaining both a public-school system and a public library: (1) school library service given by the school department entirely independent of the public library, (2) school library service given entirely by the public library, (3) school library service organized and maintained on a basis of co-operation between the public schools and the public library.

The writer's personal conviction is that either the second or the third method is preferable to the first and that the third has the edge over the second.

With the increase in library facilities in high schools, some solution of the problem here suggested will have to be reached by such schools. Many principals find that a library within the school under the supervision of a librarian teacher is a much more useful instrument of education than is the public library. If choice is to be made from the point of view of schools, probably Method 1 mentioned in the quotation will be more generally acceptable than Method 2. Method 3 seems feasible and superior if the parties concerned can be led to take a broad-minded view of their relations.

There ought to be a vigorous effort through properly constituted

committees of librarians and school officers to arrive at a policy that can be generally adopted. Local experiments of various types have been tried, and there is experience which can safely be relied on to guide general policy. There is urgent need of careful collection and critical examination and evaluation of this experience.

#### LARGE CLASSES

In an editorial in the Ohio State University *Educational Research Bulletin*, Professor W. W. Charters warns against the acceptance of recent pronouncements favorable to large classes. He says:

Within the last ten years a great number of objectively controlled experiments have demonstrated the fact that, according to the tests administered in the experiments, the size of a class is a matter of little importance. Classes numbering 50, and in some cases as high as 170 students, have an average score as high as those containing only 25 or 30 members. These objective data are being used in a rapidly increasing number of cases by administrators concerned with the pupil cost of instruction to increase the size of classes.

Thoughtful critics do not accept the data at their face values. They attack the findings from two sides. They claim, in the first place, that the objective tests which have been given directly test little except information. They open the whole question of the outcomes of teaching. They say that education develops the ability to think and reason more closely. They assert that it teaches and perfects operations involving skill. They assert that it influences behavior, and they claim that it does something to change points of view toward life and attitudes toward values and objectives. These outcomes, they believe, are not tested in any valid degree by the measures which have been used in reaching the conclusions concerning the importance of class size. They claim, also, that there is something to be gained from direct personal contacts. They recognize, of course, that there may be little more personal contact between instructors and pupils in small classes than in large groups, but they claim that it would be impossible for those teachers who do make much of personal contacts to understand and know their students well if the classes are extremely large.

In the opinion of the writer, the objections of these thoughtful critics should be taken seriously by administrators before they accept the findings in favor of large classes as a basis for wholesale increase in the teaching load.

In even more vigorous terms a protest is voiced against large classes in English by the Teachers Union of New York City in the *Union Teacher*. After commenting on the fact that some high-school classes in English contain forty or more pupils, the Union says:

This new ruling spells further mechanization of English-teaching. It means that teachers of English, who now receive too little consideration, are to be overwhelmed by impossible conditions, their energy and vitality exhausted, and the whole educational system undermined. Hence, the menace now facing the high-school teachers of English affects vitally every teacher in the public schools as well as the interests of every parent whose children are to be exposed to such conditions.

To make matters worse, this new ruling concerning the pupil period load permits an active pupil load of 1,000 per teacher, which means more than forty pupils on register for each class taught, despite the fact that we generally provide seats for but thirty-five!

Caution in accepting innovations is certainly commendable, but the burden of proof is rapidly being shifted from defenders of large classes to defenders of small classes. The public is faced with the problem of financing schools which must provide for an unprecedentedly large pupil population. In many quarters the choice must be made between one well-paid teacher in charge of large classes and two poorly paid teachers in charge of small classes. Experiments have shown that in some small classes pupils apparently become too dependent on the teacher while in large classes independence is more likely to be cultivated.

Teachers and students of education who have opinions on the question of class size will hardly be able to control practice by mere theoretical discussions. The question has passed into the experimental stage. Whoever discusses the problem from now on will have to contribute facts, otherwise his opinion will receive little attention.

#### EXTENSION HIGH SCHOOL IN IDAHO

In an article published in the *United States Daily*, W. D. Vincent, commissioner of education of Idaho, made the following statement.

Idaho has been finding the demand for high-school education overreaching present facilities. Hundreds of boys and girls from the rural districts are entering the existing institutions under the present plan of tuition paid by the non-high-school districts. New high schools are being created all over the state, while existing institutions are being expanded and extended.

In some instances, however, there is reason for a temporary high school in common or independent districts covering one or two years of work. Sometimes this comes about by a large eighth-grade finishing class with perhaps no seventh grade or even no children in several grades below the eighth.

The tuition charges of say seven pupils would be around \$850 for this group to say nothing of the added expenses necessitated by the children being away from home. In such cases it would be convenient and economical to furnish high-school education to these children in the home district.

It was under just such conditions that the "extension high school" came into existence. So far as I know, it has no prototype in the educational world.

Last year (1928-29) the plan was used in Clark County, with Dubois the mother high school district and Medicine Lodge District as the non-high-school participant. The plan which I have named "extension high school" for want of a more suitable term has been working satisfactorily to all concerned. It is a success.

Since the extension high school has been mentioned in some of the literature from the State Department of Education, many inquiries have been received regarding this interesting experiment; hence it is that this brief description of the plan was prepared.

Although no legal provisions have been made to facilitate the plan, there is not a single conflict in any detail with current laws in our state. It is fully legal, has been tried and found workable, and, as a result, has received the sanction of the State Board of Education.

The plan is as follows: A common or independent district in which there is no high school arranges with a district having an accredited four-year high school to co-operate with them in providing high-school facilities within the non-high-school district.

The co-operation shall consist of: The high-school district shall agree with the non-high-school district in selecting a teacher with all qualifications necessary for high-school teaching. The non-high-school district shall follow the course of study used by the high-school district, shall use the same textbooks and be guided and advised by high-school district authorities. The high-school district shall supervise the work, giving such tests as may seem necessary, and in all ways oversee the work as if it were a branch of their own institution. The credits made in this extension high school shall then be assumed by the high-school district and credited on their own books the same as if the credits were made within the mother institution.

This plan is only recommended for places where: It would be extremely inconvenient for the pupils of a district to leave that district for high-school attendance; it will require no additional teacher to do this work, merely a change in the teacher's qualifications; the work is for a group of ninth- or tenth-grade pupils; the pupils thus served are subsequently to enter the mother high school; there is complete understanding and co-operation of all parties concerned, the district boards as well as the county superintendent.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL SUPERVISION IN CERTAIN CITIES

ERNEST O. MELBY  
Northwestern University

The purpose of this article is to describe practices in the organization of high-school supervision in cities having populations between 10,000 and 20,000.<sup>1</sup> In cities of this size the superintendent is commonly assisted by several special supervisors and building principals. The schools are of such size that the high-school principal ordinarily does no teaching, being a full-time administrative and supervisory officer.

It was desired to determine the part played by the superintendent in high-school supervision and the extent of the principal's responsibility for supervision as well as the latitude which he enjoys in his work. As a first step in the study, ten school systems in Minnesota were visited, and all the supervisory officers in each school system were interviewed. In addition, prepared forms were checked by all the supervisors and teachers. Forms to be filled out by supervisors were then prepared for distribution in a questionnaire study. All cities in the United States of the size selected for investigation were invited to co-operate. One hundred and seventy-one cities agreed to participate in the study, usable returns being received from 120 cities. This article presents data for eighty school systems only since complete reports were received from only eighty cities.

In order to secure an accurate picture of the practices in the organization of supervision, all the supervisors in each school system were asked to describe the procedures followed in their system. The replies were then summarized by school systems. The practices as

<sup>1</sup> A more complete discussion of the problem and the procedures followed may be found in "The Organization and Administration of Supervision in Cities Having a Population of 10,000 to 20,000." Unpublished Doctor's thesis, University of Minnesota, 1928.

reported by each type of supervisor were also summarized. For example, in Table III it is shown that 65 per cent of the superintendents reporting and 59 per cent of the high-school principals reporting stated that the superintendent approves the supervisory program in general. When the reports were summarized by school systems, it was found that in 85 per cent of the school systems a majority of the supervisors agree that the superintendent approves the supervisory program in general. In this instance the reports of the supervisors seem to substantiate the replies of the superintendents.

All the teachers in each of the school systems in Minnesota participating in the investigation were asked to describe the supervisory procedures followed in their system. They were asked to indicate the degree of responsibility which they were expected to assume for each of several school activities. It was hoped to determine, in part at least, the functioning of the existing supervisory organization in terms of the extent to which the organization succeeds in giving teachers clear concepts of their responsibilities.

In an attempt to evaluate the practices found, one hundred specialists in educational administration and supervision were asked to check the same forms which were submitted to the supervisory officers, giving their judgments concerning the various practices included. The judgments of these specialists are shown in Table III with the reports of practice.

#### THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RÔLE IN HIGH-SCHOOL SUPERVISION

It is evident from Tables I, II, and III that the superintendents in the cities included in the investigation play an active part in high-school supervision. More than one-half of the superintendents visit high-school classes to improve instruction, hold conferences with teachers, and make suggestions to teachers both directly and through the principal. Only 19 per cent of the superintendents make suggestions through the principal only. More than one-half of the superintendents call meetings of teachers to discuss methods. It can be seen that the principals are definitely conscious of the presence of the superintendent as an active participant in super-

vision. Few of the principals feel that the work of supervision has been delegated to them in its entirety.

#### LATITUDE ACCORDED TO HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Without exception, the eighty principals included in the study indicated that they are directly responsible to the superintendent of schools. In the case of each of eight items of school management, the principals were asked to check the one of three columns which best describes the latitude which is accorded to them by the superintendent of schools. The columns were headed "Prescribed in de-

TABLE I  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTY HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO  
THE METHOD OF CARRYING ON SEVEN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

Activity	Carried On Chiefly by Superintendent	Carried On Jointly by Superintendent and Principal	Carried On Exclusively by Principal	No Data
Visiting classrooms.....	0	75	18	8
Giving suggestions to teachers.....	0	75	18	8
Calling teachers' meetings.....	0	26	63	11
Supervising curriculum construction..	9	60	25	6
Selecting textbooks.....	6	68	18	9
Rating teachers for re-employment..	19	68	6	8
Selecting new teachers.....	38	50	3	10

tail," "Prescribed in general only," and "Complete freedom allowed." The results appear in Table II. While there may have been some misinterpretation of the categories, it is believed that a summary of the replies will give a rough picture of the practices with respect to the latitude permitted principals. It appears that high-school principals have much freedom in connection with most of the items in Table II. Such items as course of study, teaching methods, and activities used are prescribed only in a general way or complete freedom in determining them is allowed. The principals were asked also to indicate the degree of latitude which they in turn give to teachers under their supervision. While the teachers appear to have less freedom than do the principals, they seem in general to have considerable freedom of action.



The curious fact is that the superintendent in most cases, while according the high-school principal a high degree of freedom, continues to visit classes, offer suggestions, call teachers' meetings, and hold conferences much as he probably did before the principal had supervisory responsibility and perhaps much as he does in those situations where the principal has little or no time set aside for supervision. The exact amounts of supervision given by superintendents are, of course, not known. It is likely that, with the press

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION\* OF EIGHTY HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF LATITUDE ACCORDED TO THE PRINCIPALS BY THE SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE CASE OF EIGHT ITEMS OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF LATITUDE ACCORDED TO THE TEACHERS BY THE PRINCIPALS

ITEM	PRESCRIBED IN DETAIL		PRESCRIBED IN GENERAL ONLY		COMPLETE FREEDOM ALLOWED	
	Principals	Teachers	Principals	Teachers	Principals	Teachers
Time allotment.....	5	28	36	53	40	6
Course of study.....	10	28	68	59	8	1
Teaching methods.....	1	1	43	54	38	34
Activities used.....	0	3	38	51	46	23
Adherence to textbooks.....	3	8	60	60	21	9
Basis for promotion.....	16	39	55	43	18	6
Basis for classification.....	15	35	43	38	25	6
Basis for marking.....	20	43	48	38	16	3

\* In the case of each item the percentage of principals who failed to check the item has been omitted in order to simplify the table.

of other duties, such amounts are not large, probably not large enough to be really effective. Whatever the amount, however, the fact remains that the high-school principal is not definitely and fully responsible for supervision in his school.

#### JUDGMENTS OF SPECIALISTS

Specialists are in disagreement concerning the part which the superintendent should play in high-school supervision. Only 25 per cent of the fifty-six specialists who supplied data believe that the superintendent should visit high-school classrooms to improve instruction (Table III). At the same time only 30 per cent of the specialists believe that the superintendent should hold conferences

with high-school teachers concerning the improvement of teaching. It is apparent that the specialists differ with existing practice with regard to the extent of the superintendent's participation in the details of supervisory work.

TABLE III\*

PART PLAYED IN SUPERVISION BY THE SUPERINTENDENT IN EIGHTY SCHOOL SYSTEMS AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS, SUPERINTENDENTS, AND THE MAJORITY OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS IN EACH SYSTEM AND THE JUDGMENTS OF FIFTY-SIX SPECIALISTS REGARDING THE PRACTICES LISTED

Practice	Majority of Supervisory Officers	High-School Principals	Superintendents	Specialists
Approves supervisory program in general . . . .	85	59	65	84
Plans supervisory work of principal in detail . .	1	1	5	0
Plans supervisory work of principal in general .	53	23	44	43
Permits principal to plan his own work . . . . .	71	70	50	63
Personally visits classrooms to improve teaching . . . . .	83	50	56	25
Personally visits classrooms to inspect only . . .	45	30	34	41
Personally visits classrooms to rate teachers for re-employment . . . . .	71	39	55	46
Calls meetings of teachers to discuss methods .	68	41	51	46
Calls meetings of teachers for announcements and routine . . . . .	45	31	30	25
Personally holds conferences with teachers following visitation . . . . .	63	44	50	30
Makes suggestions only through principal . . . .	14	28	19	34
Makes suggestions both directly and through principal . . . . .	78	51	68	64
Makes all suggestions on method . . . . .	1	1	1	0
Delegates to principal all supervision for improvement of instruction . . . . .	10	20	6	34
Meets with supervisors as a group to outline policy . . . . .	56	50	44	88
Requires reports of all persons who do supervisory work . . . . .	58	34	48	71

\* This table should be read as follows: In 85 per cent of the school systems the majority of the supervisory officers stated that the superintendent approves the supervisory program in general. Fifty-nine per cent of the principals and 65 per cent of the superintendents reported that the superintendent approves the supervisory program in general. Eighty-four per cent of the specialists indicated that the superintendent should approve the supervisory program in general.

#### RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS

It has been shown that responsibility for supervision in the cities studied has not been clearly delegated to the high-school principal. In view of this fact, it is of interest to note the opinions of teachers as to their responsibilities in connection with certain school activi-

ties. While space does not permit the presentation of all the data in the present discussion, a few examples may be included.

The teachers in the ten school systems in Minnesota were asked to indicate the degree of responsibility which they were expected to assume with respect to various aspects of school management, such as the curriculum and teaching methods. Four degrees of responsibility were recognized: complete, partial, opportunity for suggestions, and no responsibility whatever. Thus, a teacher may (1)

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 334 HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN TEN SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN MINNESOTA ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF RESPONSIBILITY THEY FEEL FOR THE CURRICULUM

School System	Complete Responsibility	Partial Responsibility	Opportunity for Suggestions	No Responsibility	No Data
1.....	0	15	18	12	55
2.....	18	36	20	12	14
3.....	30	13	24	24	9
4.....	15	15	24	36	10
5.....	3	18	30	21	28
6.....	8	12	20	28	32
7.....	12	24	36	18	10
8.....	4	8	32	28	28
9.....	10	15	17	35	23
10.....	0	6	18	60	16
Average.....	10.0	16.2	23.9	27.4	22.5

actually prepare the course of study, (2) participate in its preparation, (3) merely have the right to make suggestions, or (4) be required to use a course of study in the preparation of which she had no part. The data resulting from this part of the study were tabulated by school systems. While there is some difference between systems, in nearly every system all four degrees of responsibility for the curriculum were expressed by the teachers. While the data in Table IV deal only with the course of study, similar data are available for teaching method, school organization, and textbook selection. Likewise, within the same school system there seems to be disagreement concerning all items. It is, of course, realized that some of the disagreement is caused by misinterpretation of the

categories, but misinterpretation could hardly account for all the disagreement shown. It must also be remembered that in the case of each school system the entire teaching staff is reporting on the one organization. The forms were checked in teachers' meetings after considerable explanation. In any case the exact amount of disagreement is secondary. The fact remains that within any one of

TABLE V  
PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN TEN SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN MINNESOTA WHO INDICATED THAT GENERAL UNIFORMITY IN TEACHING METHODS IS EXPECTED AND PERCENTAGE WHO INDICATED THAT COMPLETE FREEDOM IN METHOD IS ALLOWED

SCHOOL SYSTEM	GENERAL UNIFORMITY EXPECTED		COMPLETE FREEDOM ALLOWED	
	Elementary-School Teachers	High-School Teachers	Elementary-School Teachers	High-School Teachers
1.....	75	33	20	45
2.....	64	12	14	66
3*.....	25	28	55	60
4.....	46	18	18	36
5.....	54	18	15	33
6.....	80	18	2	38
7*.....	30	6	48	48
8.....	78	36	19	60
9.....	72	30	15	44
10.....	76	24	18	45
Average.....	60.0	22.3	25.4	47.5

\* The superintendent is the active supervisor in both elementary schools and high school.

the school systems both elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers have widely varying conceptions of their responsibilities.

#### LATITUDE PERMITTED TEACHERS

The teachers were asked to indicate whether teaching methods are prescribed in detail, prescribed in general, or not prescribed at all. Since virtually none of the high-school teachers indicated that teaching methods are prescribed in detail, Table V compares only the percentage of teachers who stated that they are required to conform to teaching methods in a general way with the percentage of teachers who are allowed complete freedom in method. For comparative

purposes the data for the elementary schools in each school system are included.

It is evident that high-school teachers have much greater freedom in method than do elementary-school teachers. The average percentage of elementary-school teachers who indicated that general uniformity in method is expected is almost three times as great as the corresponding percentage of high-school teachers. The average percentage of high-school teachers who indicated that they enjoy complete freedom in method is almost twice as great as the corre-

TABLE VI

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS  
AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN TEN SCHOOL SYSTEMS  
IN MINNESOTA WHO INDICATED THAT THEY FOLLOW  
CERTAIN PRACTICES WITH RESPECT TO THE COURSE  
OF STUDY

Practice	Elementary-School Teachers	High-School Teachers
Course of study followed closely..	33.2	15.5
Course of study followed only in general.....	55.2	55.9
Teacher's judgment determines what is taught.....	8.0	19.0
Supervisor's or principal's judgment determines what is taught	49.6	9.3

sponding percentage of elementary-school teachers. The greater feeling of independence on the part of high-school teachers is further illustrated by the practices in connection with the course of study (Table VI). The average percentage of elementary-school teachers who indicated that they follow the course of study closely is more than twice as great as the corresponding percentage of high-school teachers. The average percentage of high-school teachers who indicated that the teacher's judgment determines what is taught is more than twice as great as the corresponding percentage of elementary-school teachers. An average of 50 per cent of the elementary-school teachers indicated that the supervisor's judgment determines what is taught as compared with an average of 9 per cent of the high-school teachers.

An attempt was made to compare the extent to which elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers are influenced by supervisory officers in matters of teaching procedure. Table VII shows the percentage of elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers in the ten school systems in Minnesota who stated that they use largely methods taught or presented by their supervisory officers. The average percentage of elementary-school teachers who

TABLE VII  
PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS  
AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN TEN SCHOOL  
SYSTEMS IN MINNESOTA WHO INDICATED  
THAT THEY USE LARGELY METHODS PRE-  
SENTED OR TAUGHT BY SUPERVISORS OR  
PRINCIPAL

School System	Elementary-School Teachers	High-School Teachers
1.....	48	6
2.....	60	12
3*.....	12	15
4.....	48	10
5.....	33	6
6.....	57	15
7*.....	18	18
8.....	33	0
9.....	75	0
10.....	34	3
Average.....	41.8	8.5

\* The superintendent is the active supervisor in both elementary schools and high school.

said that they use methods presented by supervisors is 41.8, while the corresponding percentage of high-school teachers is 8.5. In the case of one of the two school systems where the superintendent is the active supervisory officer for both the elementary schools and the high school the percentages of elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers are the same; the percentages in the case of the other system are practically the same.

#### CONCLUSIONS

It appears that supervision in the high schools included in the study here reported is a joint undertaking of the principal and the

superintendent of schools. Both of these school officers are concerned with the details of supervisory procedure. Teachers evidently receive suggestions from both. The exact division of responsibility in an individual school system is difficult to determine. In the school systems visited there seems to be a sort of friendly understanding between the superintendent and the principal which prevents any open conflict of authority. The principal recognizes the presence of the superintendent in the details of supervision. In no sense can it be said that the superintendent engages in visitation, for example, only to be in a position to guide the principal better. Rather, the two officers seem to divide the supervisory work in some fashion, proceeding as co-workers.

While the spirit in which this procedure is followed is very commendable, one questions the soundness of the arrangement. Will the principal develop the proper consciousness of responsibility for supervision so long as the superintendent continues to share the work in its details? Can teachers be expected to look upon the principal as the head of the high school when the superintendent continues to supervise much as if the principal were an assistant?

From the standpoint of the superintendent, it is difficult to see how the arrangement can be productive of the best results. Time spent by the superintendent on the details of supervisory procedure reduces the amount of time available for organizing and guiding the supervisory staff.

In view of the division of supervisory responsibility found in the high schools studied, it is perhaps not surprising to find at the same time great disagreement among teachers as to the exact nature of their responsibilities. Differences in point of view reflected by the principal and the superintendent with the attendant uncertainty would result in differences in teacher attitude. If teachers actually participate in the various activities in the same ratio as they feel responsibility, their contributions must vary greatly. One might well question whether an organization the members of which have widely varying notions of their responsibilities is likely to function efficiently.

All but two of the ten school systems in Minnesota visited have grade supervisors. As judged by the reactions of the teachers, these



supervisors influence the teaching in the elementary schools much more directly than high-school principals and superintendents influence the teaching in the secondary schools. Elementary-school teachers acknowledge supervisory influence in the selection of materials, methods, and subject matter. They feel that they are expected to conform in general to practices advocated by the supervisor. High-school teachers acknowledge no such supervisory influence. They feel considerable freedom in method, course of study, and materials used. Would it be desirable to create in high schools supervisory machinery which would, if it could, influence high-school teaching in a direct manner? To what extent are differences in teacher attitude in high schools and elementary schools due to differences in the training of the teachers and to variations in supervisory procedure?

When superintendents are asked why they continue as active supervisors in the high school, they often reply that their principals are not adequately trained for supervisory work. In the long run can a school system afford to give a principal full time for supervisory work if the principal is unqualified to supervise?

It may be that the type of supervision needed in high schools is different from that needed in elementary schools. In any case it is difficult to see how an effective supervisory program in the high school can be developed unless supervisory responsibility is delegated to the principal. The superintendent should give his attention to the problems of supervisory organization as they apply to both elementary-school and high-school supervision.

## THE EFFECT OF PARTICIPATION IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES ON SCHOLARSHIP IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

WALTER S. MONROE  
University of Illinois

Many high-school principals and teachers have questioned the desirability of encouraging extra-curriculum activities, especially those that require a large amount of the pupil's time. It has been argued that participation in such activities as football, basket-ball, school papers, and dramatic clubs must surely affect adversely the scholarship of the pupil. The advocates of extra-curriculum activities have insisted that this condition does not prevail generally and have called attention to the positive contributions that may be expected from participation in extra-curriculum activities. There have been, however, very few investigations designed to reveal the actual results.

It is the purpose of this article to report briefly two investigations of the effect of participation in extra-curriculum activities on scholarship in the high school. In the first investigation<sup>1</sup> the data were secured from the Senior High School of Kenosha, Wisconsin. In the second investigation<sup>2</sup> the data were secured from three Illinois high schools—Bridgeport Township High School, Robinson Township High School, and Canton High School.

The Kenosha study was limited to pupils in the eleventh and twelfth grades during the school year 1927-28, and the activities considered were student council, school paper, football, basket-ball, and track. These were the major extra-curriculum activities of the

<sup>1</sup> George Nelson Tremper, "The Effect of Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities on the Scholarship of the Participants in the Kenosha, Wisconsin, Senior High School." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1928. Pp. 64.

<sup>2</sup> Clarence Elmer Crawford, "The Effect of Participation in Extra-Classroom Activities on the Scholarship of High-School Pupils." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1929. Pp. 64.

school, and each required an hour or more of practically daily participation. Pupils who participated in one or more activities during one or more semesters were classified as participants. Those who did not participate at any time were classified as non-participants. A subgroup of participants included those who participated during some but not all of the semesters. A separate study was made of the athletes.

In order that the group of non-participants might be comparable with the group of pupils participating in extra-curriculum activities, no pupil was included who did not meet the scholastic standards required for participation in extra-curriculum activities. The mean mark of each pupil for each semester was computed from the school records. The mean marks were then combined, and an arithmetic mean was determined for all semesters for each non-participant and separately for all participating and all non-participating semesters for each participant. The mean mark thus obtained for all semesters for each non-participant was combined with the mean marks of all other non-participants, and a median was calculated for the whole non-participating group. Similarly, median marks were obtained separately for all participating and all non-participating semesters for the whole participating group. A measure of general intelligence was secured by means of the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability.

The data are summarized in Table I. This table shows that, on the average, the pupils who participated in major extra-curriculum activities were superior in general intelligence to those who did not participate. The difference in the case of the girls is especially significant. The athletes as a whole were slightly inferior to the participating boys. In scholarship, the participating pupils excelled the non-participants. The data for participating girls during non-participating semesters show that non-participation does not raise school marks. In the case of participating boys and athletes, the median mark is slightly higher for non-participating semesters, but the median intelligence quotient is also higher. Consequently, non-participation cannot be said to result in higher marks.

Table II shows the correlation between general intelligence and school marks for the various groups. It is probably significant that the correlation between general intelligence and school marks is

higher for the participating pupils than for the non-participating pupils. The data suggest that a participating pupil is stimulated so that his achievement is more nearly commensurate with his intelligence than is the achievement of the non-participating pupil with his intelligence. Further analysis of the data shows that pupils of high intelligence did approximately the same quality of work during participating and non-participating semesters. At the median level of intelligence and below it the achievement of some pupils was

TABLE I

MEDIAN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS AND MEDIAN MARKS OF NON-PARTICIPANTS  
AND OF PARTICIPANTS IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES  
IN THE KENOSHA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

	Number of Pupils	Median Intelligence Quotient	Median Mark
Non-participants:			
Boys.....	161	100.6	78.5
Girls.....	256	97.4	81.0
Participants:			
Participating semesters:			
Boys.....	75	101.4	81.9
Girls.....	37	105.4	89.3
Non-participating semesters:			
Boys.....	45	103.0	82.8
Girls.....	32	105.0	88.4
Participants in athletics:			
Participating semesters.....	51	99.5	80.8
Non-participating semesters.....	27	101.0	81.3

lower during participating semesters, while other pupils, particularly athletes, were stimulated to more satisfactory curricular performance during participation in extra-curriculum activities. As might be expected, the effect of participation in extra-curriculum activities appears to vary.

In the light of the data as a whole, the conclusion is unavoidable that participation in extra-curriculum activities in the Kenosha Senior High School does not affect adversely the scholastic standing of pupils. In fact, the evidence suggests that participation may be beneficial. This condition may be due in part to the close supervision of extra-curriculum activities in this school. The investigation, however, was not extended to this phase of the problem.

The method of the second investigation was very similar to that

of the first. The major extra-curriculum activities considered were football, basket-ball, track, debating, and school publications. In addition, several minor extra-curriculum activities were recognized, and a pupil was classified as participating if he was especially active in two or more minor activities during a semester. The groups considered were the 1929 class of the Bridgeport Township High School, the 1928 and 1929 classes of the Robinson Township High School, and the 1928 class of the Canton High School. The Terman Group

TABLE II

CORRELATION BETWEEN GENERAL INTELLIGENCE AND  
SCHOOL MARKS OF NON-PARTICIPANTS AND OF PAR-  
TICIPANTS IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE  
KENOSHA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

	Correlation
Non-participants:	
Boys.....	.24
Girls.....	.42
Participants:	
Participating semesters:	
Boys.....	.60
Girls.....	.74
Non-participating semesters:	
Boys.....	.47
Girls.....	.63
Participants in athletics:	
Participating semesters.....	.35
Non-participating semesters.....	.20

Test of Mental Ability was administered at the Bridgeport and Robinson township high schools and the Illinois General Intelligence Scale, at the Canton High School.

The data secured in this investigation are summarized in Table III. A study of this table leads to the same general conclusions that were reached in the case of Table I.

Table IV shows the correlation between general intelligence and school marks. The same conclusions may be drawn from this table that were drawn from Table II. The correlation between general intelligence and school marks is higher for the participating groups than for the non-participating groups. The correlation is higher for the participating girls in participating semesters than in non-

TABLE III

MEDIAN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS AND MEDIAN MARKS OF NON-PARTICIPANTS AND OF PARTICIPANTS IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE BRIDGEPORT TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, ROBINSON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, AND CANTON HIGH SCHOOL

	Number of Pupils	Median Intelligence Quotient	Median Mark
Non-participants:			
Boys.....	67	102	82
Girls.....	85	103	84
All participants:			
Boys.....	82	105	82
Girls.....	55	120	89
Participants who did not participate all semesters:			
Participating semesters:			
Boys.....	53	109	82
Girls.....	25	116	88
Non-participating semesters:			
Boys.....	53	109	81
Girls.....	25	116	87

TABLE IV

CORRELATION BETWEEN GENERAL INTELLIGENCE AND SCHOOL MARKS OF NON-PARTICIPANTS AND OF PARTICIPANTS IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE BRIDGEPORT TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, ROBINSON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, AND CANTON HIGH SCHOOL

	Correlation
Non-participants:	
Boys.....	.33
Girls.....	.48
All participants:	
Boys.....	.52
Girls.....	.72
Participants who did not participate all semesters:	
Participating semesters:	
Boys.....	.52
Girls.....	.61
Non-participating semesters:	
Boys.....	.61
Girls.....	.50

participating semesters. The situation is reversed in the case of the participating boys. Examination of the data suggests that the difference is due to the variations in the marks of a few boys of average

or less than average intelligence. Similar variations were noted in the Kenosha study.

Limitations of the method employed in the investigations reported will occur to the critical reader. School marks are known to be poor measures of scholastic achievement, and it may be that the participating pupils were favored in the assignment of marks. Furthermore, no distinction was made between marks in one subject and marks in another. It may be that the participating pupils tended to choose easier courses, especially during participating semesters. A more serious criticism, perhaps, lies in the failure to take into account the effect of extra-curriculum activities on the school as a whole. Athletic contests and to some extent other extra-curriculum activities absorb the attention of non-participants, especially at certain times, and it might be argued that the extra-curriculum activities affected adversely non-participants as well as participants, thus lowering the general standing of the school. On the other hand, it may be that the extra-curriculum activities tended to stimulate interest in school work.

It is probably true that, if extra-curriculum activities were completely suppressed, more pupils would leave school. Hence, such investigations as have been described in this article cannot completely settle the question of the desirability or undesirability of extra-curriculum activities. The results obtained, however, indicate that extra-curriculum activities are beneficial rather than detrimental in the schools studied.

Caution should be exercised in generalizing on the basis of particular investigations. The number of pupils was not large in either of the investigations described in the preceding pages. The probable errors of the derived measures are not given because the cases were not selected at random; hence, they probably should not be treated as subject to the laws of sampling. However, the fact that the results of the Kenosha study were corroborated by a study of conditions in three high schools in another state and in communities of a different type indicates that the results are typical of high schools in general, especially high schools in which extra-curriculum activities are carefully supervised.



# THE EFFECTS OF WEIGHTED CREDIT IN THE LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

JOSEPHINE E. WIBLE

Lincoln Senior High School, Lincoln, Nebraska

The term "weighted credit" as used in this article implies a plan by which the amount of credit granted for a course of study varies according to the quality and the quantity of work done. In 1916-17 the Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, inaugurated a system which fixes the amount of credit pupils receive according to their scholarship marks.

TABLE I  
CREDIT GRANTED ACCORDING TO QUALITY OF WORK

Scholarship Mark*	Credit on Basis of One Unit	Credit on Basis of Five Hours
1 or 95-100.....	1.2	6.0
2 or 90- 94.....	1.1	5.5
3 or 85- 89.....	1.0	5.0
4 or 80- 84.....	1.0	5.0
5 or 75- 79.....	0.9	4.5
6 or 70- 74.....	0.8	4.0
7 or below 70.....	0.0	0.0

\* The use of the numerals 1-7 as scholarship marks was introduced in 1926.

Table I indicates that superior work yields additional credit while work that is barely passing yields less than full credit. Credit-for-quality systems have been used for many years in numerous secondary schools, but correspondence and a survey of current literature failed to disclose any objective study of such a system covering any considerable period of time. The study here reported aimed to check the efficacy of the weighted-credit plan which has operated unchanged for more than ten years in the Lincoln High School.

Some of the questions arising are: (1) Has weighted credit affected scholarship? (2) What is its relative importance as compared with other scholarship incentives? (3) To what extent has it re-

tained pupils in high school more than four years? (4) To what extent has it made graduation possible in less than four years? (5) What quantity of work in terms of semester units was carried by the graduates included under (3) and (4)? (6) Does less than the conventional amount of high-school work hinder progress in college or university if the high-school work is of high quality?

In the attempt to discover the effect of the weighted-credit plan on scholarship, several distinct investigations were made. The first was a study of the distribution of the marks received in all full-time subjects by all pupils who remained in school until the end of a semester from February, 1915, four semesters before weighted credit was introduced, to June, 1925, seventeen semesters after weighted credit was introduced. During the first semester under the new system (the second semester of the school year 1916-17), the percentage of failures decreased from 7.4 to 5.9; the percentage of 70-79 marks decreased from 30.9 to 24.1; the percentage of 80-89 marks increased from 39.1 to 46.0; and the percentage of 90-100 marks increased from 22.6 to 24.1. Data for the successive semesters show a decided improvement in marks during the three or four years immediately following the inauguration of weighted credit, a considerable percentage of marks shifting from the failing and 70-79 groups into the 80-89 and 90-100 groups, and then an approximately uniform level from 1921 to 1926. During each of the seventeen semesters after the introduction of weighted credit, the percentage of 70-79 marks was less than the corresponding percentage during any one of the four semesters immediately preceding the use of the weighted-credit system, and the percentage of 80-89 marks was greater.

The measures of central tendency and variability were also calculated for each of the twenty-one semesters. The data for the two semesters of the school year 1916-17 are presented in Table II. The critical ratio for the medians cited is 4+ and for the averages cited, 5.3+. A critical ratio greater than 3 indicates high reliability. The measures of central tendency for the successive semesters and the percentage distributions of marks indicate a decided improvement in scholarship from the second semester of the school

year 1916-17 to 1921 and an approximately uniform level from 1921 to 1926.

Other factors besides weighted credit undoubtedly affected scholarship during the seventeen semesters. Fraternities were abolished in 1917-18. Directed study was introduced in 1918-19. The data collected show that both of these factors encouraged scholarship. However, the improvement due to these two factors was seemingly less pronounced than was the improvement brought about by weighted credit. An investigation in 1919 showed that the improvement in the character of the pupils' work dating from the

TABLE II  
MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND VARIABILITY  
OF MARKS FOR THE TWO SEMESTERS OF THE  
SCHOOL YEAR 1916-17

	First Semester	Second Semester (Weighted Credit Introduced)
Median.....	83.0	84.1
Average.....	81.8	83.0
Third quartile.....	89.4	89.8
First quartile.....	76.0	78.0
Quartile deviation.....	6.7	5.9

second semester of the school year 1916-17 could not be explained by assuming that the teachers had lowered their standards. A significant factor in any scholarship study is the increased enrolment. In the second semester of the school year 1924-25 the total number of final marks was 9,157; in the second semester of the school year 1914-15 the total was only 4,389, a ratio of more than two to one. For every 100 pupils attending the Lincoln High School in 1915 there were 271 pupils attending in 1925, according to the 1926 report of the superintendent of the Lincoln schools. The increase in school population has certainly resulted in a wider sampling of the general public and hence a lower level of ability for the group as a whole. The need of serving the larger group, with its wider range of abilities and interests, has taxed the school to the utmost. One would suppose that the scholarship attainments of the larger group would be

decidedly less than the attainments of the select group of pupils who attended the high school a decade or more ago. Yet this study shows some improvement in practically every measure over the situation prior to 1917. It seems practically certain that weighted credit played a positive part in counteracting the slump in scholarship attainments to be expected from the enlarged heterogeneous school population. From the total number of marks of all pupils, it is evident that the growth in population commenced in Lincoln in 1920-21, a fact which may explain in part the approximately uniform level for 1920-26 previously mentioned.

Another investigation dealt with the scholarship records in the ninth and tenth school years of two groups of pupils, one of which entered the ninth grade in the autumn of 1924 and the other in the autumn of 1925. The Lincoln High School did not become exclusively a senior high school until 1927. The first group received weighted credit in both the ninth and the tenth years, while the second group received weighted credit in the tenth year only because of a ruling enacted in 1925. Other probable factors affecting marks, such as attendance, curriculum, percentage of boys and girls, and intelligence quotients, were practically identical for the two groups. Their marks indicate that weighted credit was an added scholarship incentive to the second group in its tenth year.

Although, in any research, objective data are needed and not current opinion, the reactions of more than 2,100 pupils to the weighted-credit system may be of interest. Questionnaires received from 452 Seniors in the class of 1926 and alumni of the class of 1925 show that 85 per cent put forth greater effort in their studies because of weighted credit; 66 per cent preferred to attend a school giving weighted credit; 27 per cent did not prefer to attend such a school; and 7 per cent were indifferent. Of the 27 per cent who did not prefer to attend a school giving weighted credit, the majority had entered the Lincoln High School from other high schools, and their credits for work done in high schools outside the city were not weighted when they transferred to the Lincoln High School.

In 1927 approximately 1,700 other pupils checked and ranked those items in the following list which encouraged them to earn as high marks as possible in high school: (1) approval of parents, (2)

approval of teachers, (3) honor roll, (4) Senior prizes, (5) weighted credit, (6) competition of fellow-pupils, and (7) eligibility for athletic teams, dramatic plays, debating teams, etc. Included in the list were only what might be termed extrinsic incentives. Although the main purpose of the study was to determine the rank of weighted credit, this was not made known to the pupils. Sufficient time was allotted for a thoughtful response. There was no opportunity for discussion inside or outside the classroom although the teachers answered questions concerning ranking, etc. From the data secured, the following observations were made.

1. Approval of parents affected the scholarship of the greatest number of pupils, and it was considered the most forceful factor in encouraging high marks.
2. With the exception of parent approval, weighted credit was the most effective scholarship incentive, as judged by both the extent and the potency of influence.
3. The honor roll offered some encouragement to about one-half of the pupils but was ranked first by only 4.1 per cent of the pupils.
4. Senior prizes were a negligible factor.
5. Accelerated or superior pupils were less concerned with teacher approval and eligibility requirements than were other groups.
6. Eligibility for athletics and other competitive activities had more effect on retarded pupils than on any other group.

Another question which this study answers concerns the effect of weighted credit on the length of time spent in the Lincoln High School by 1,169 graduates of the classes of 1920-26, inclusive. The records of all the graduates in these classes who did all their high-school work in the Lincoln High School were studied. Weighted credit made it possible for 1.0 per cent of these graduates to complete their high-school work in three years and 12.0 per cent in three and one-half years. Because of weighted credit, 1.4 per cent remained four and one-half years, and 0.1 per cent, or only one pupil, was obliged to remain five years. Altogether, weighted credit affected the graduation of 14.5 per cent of the pupils, while 26.6 per cent of the pupils were irregular for other reasons. The average number of semester units of work completed by those pupils who were retained more than four years because of weighted credit was

three units more than the traditional amount. The average amount of work completed by the mentally superior pupils who graduated in three or three and one-half years by virtue of weighted credit was only one semester less than the traditional amount. Early graduation is possible in any school if pupils undertake extensive work. Weighted credit makes early graduation possible by means of intensive work.

Of those graduates of the classes of 1920-26 who completed their high-school work in less than the conventional period of time and carried less than the traditional number of semester units of work, 74 per cent entered the University of Nebraska. The university records of the entire group are considerably above the average. The records of the pupils who completed their high-school work in three years are excellent. Evidently these pupils suffered no handicap scholastically in the university. With regard to the ability of this group to meet the entrance requirements of the University of Nebraska, less than 5 per cent fell short of the required thirty points for entrance. Several lacked two points, and one lacked one point. Of course, these pupils could have remained in the Lincoln High School the length of time necessary to enter the university unconditionally if they had so desired.

The findings of the study may be summarized as follows:

1. Weighted credit has induced the majority of the pupils in the Lincoln High School to put forth greater effort in their regular school activities than they would exert if marks were not weighted. This statement is substantiated by actual comparison of marks earned when weighted credit was operative with marks earned when weighted credit was not operative and by pupil opinion.
2. Weighted credit has decreased the percentage of pupils who deliberately aim to secure marks that are merely passing.
3. Several methods of measurement indicate that weighted credit is more effective in promoting scholarship than are the elimination of fraternities, directed study, honor roll, Senior prizes, eligibility requirements, competition, and other factors.
4. The majority of the pupils consider the weighted-credit plan more just than the old system under which all marks carried the same amount of credit.

5. Weighted credit required 1.4 per cent of 1,169 graduates to remain in high school four and one-half years and 0.1 per cent to remain five years. On the other hand, weighted credit permitted a few pupils to graduate in four years who would otherwise have been detained four and one-half years because of absence due to illness or other causes.

6. Weighted credit made it possible for 1.0 per cent of 1,169 graduates to complete their high-school work in three years and 12.0 per cent in three and one-half years.

7. The fact that pupils who complete their high-school work in less than four years by means of weighted credit have carried fewer subjects but have more nearly mastered them does not hinder their progress in the university.

No attempt has been made to determine whether or not the credit assigned to the different marks by the Lincoln High School is most wisely distributed. The only claim of this investigation is that it is an extensive study of a weighted-credit system which has been tried out in a large school for a long period of time.



## HEALTH AND SCHOLARSHIP IN SUMMER HIGH SCHOOL

E. B. CLOGSTON

Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana

In view of the fact that summer high schools are frequently condemned as detrimental to the health of the pupils who attend and as inferior in scholastic accomplishment and intellectual advancement to the regular school sessions, the judgments being based largely on opinion, the investigation here described was undertaken to determine the facts in the case of one school.

During the 1929 summer term of the Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana, conditions affecting health and scholarship were studied. A series of comparisons were worked out to determine the relation of the summer-school work to the work of the regular sessions.

What is the effect of the summer high school on the health and the scholarship of the pupils? As principal of the summer school, with several years of experience in summer teaching, the writer assumed that the summer temperatures might affect the health of pupils as revealed by absence from school. A daily temperature chart was therefore kept.

The pupils were weighed on the school scales during the first and the last weeks of the nine-week term on the assumption that any radical loss in weight would indicate an undue drain on the vitality and health of the pupils. The seven teachers were provided with blanks each week on which to note daily any evidences of strain—listlessness, restlessness, or other symptoms.

The pupils answered two questionnaires relative to absences on account of illness during the preceding semester and during the summer term.

Since the I.Q.'s of the pupils were not known and since there was no large amount of data available in the form of results of standardized tests, the following comparisons were made the basis for judging

the scholarship records. The final marks of the pupils for the preceding semester were compared with the final marks for the summer term, and the two sets of marks were correlated. In the single instance of economics, the results of a new-type and somewhat standardized test given during the preceding semester were compared with the results of the same test given during the summer term.

During the forty-five days of the summer term from June 17 to August 16 a total of 138 pupils were enrolled. While the daily temperatures ranged from 72 to 86, with an average of 78.6, only seventy-seven pupils were absent on account of illness and thirty-four pupils for other causes. The average loss per pupil was only two days. Yet the percentage of attendance of all pupils enrolled during the summer term was .9 below the percentage of attendance of all pupils enrolled during the preceding semester, the percentages being 95.5 for the summer term and 96.4 for the preceding semester. More than one-half of the absences during the summer term occurred on days when the temperature was below the average of 78.6.

The record of weights for 119 pupils showed a net loss of eight pounds, or slightly more than one ounce per pupil. The number of pupils who lost weight was less than the number of pupils who gained weight or remained the same. One boy alone lost eleven pounds on account of excessive physical work in addition to his school work. This single loss is more than the net loss for the entire group; if it were not for the record of this boy, the pupils as a whole would have shown a slight gain. The pupils who gained three or four pounds or more were probably normal, while those who lost several pounds were subject to an undue loss. There is no evidence, however, that the summer school was responsible for any loss in weight; nor can it be proved that the summer school caused some pupils to gain weight. The seven teachers showed a net loss of eleven pounds, or 1.6 pounds per teacher.

Of the sixty-three weekly reports made by the teachers on evidences of ill health, only seven bore any notations, and the seven reports mentioned only eight pupils. These pupils were reported as being indifferent, but further investigation proved that they were daydreamers for the most part.

As shown by the questionnaires, the absences from school on account of illness during the preceding semester and during the summer term were traceable to twenty-three ailments. Thirty-six pupils were not absent because of illness during either the preceding semester or the summer term. Of the twenty-three ailments mentioned as the causes of absence of the other pupils, twenty-two were responsible for 171 absences during the preceding semester, while thirteen were responsible for 55 absences during the summer term. Twenty-five pupils were absent during both the preceding semester and the summer term on account of one or more of eight ailments. Pupils who were not absent during the summer term reported twenty-two ailments as causing 146 absences during the preceding semester, while pupils who were not absent during the preceding semester reported twelve ailments as responsible for 30 absences during the summer term.

From the point of view of health, the investigation points rather strongly toward the conclusion that the summer school is more healthful, with a smaller percentage of absences on account of illness, with no serious loss of weight on the part of the pupils, and with little evidence of overwork or ill effects from the heat.

From the point of view of scholarship, the evidence is more positive in favor of the summer school although the measurements are only approximate. The marking system in the school is a letter system of A, B, C, D, and F. The final marks for 127 summer-school pupils and their final marks for the preceding semester were given the numerical values of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 and then averaged. Sixty-eight pupils ranked higher in the summer term than in the preceding semester; eighteen pupils remained on the same level; and forty-one pupils, or about one-third of the group, ranked lower in the summer term than in the preceding semester. The correlation between the two sets of marks by the average-deviation method was found to be .708, with a probable error of .029.

A comparison of the percentages of failures in the various subjects during the two terms is favorable to the summer-school work. The percentage of failures was much lower for the summer term in all the twelve courses taught except second-term United States history and economics, the percentage of failures in each of these sub-

jects in the summer term being about three times as great as the percentage of failures in the preceding semester. In the case of economics the summer enrolment was less than one-third of the enrolment for the preceding semester, and a single failure in the summer caused the high percentage. The total percentage of failures for all courses taught in the summer term is small, being less than 3.

The test used in economics, which was developed about five years ago, covers the semester course in this subject. The test is of the completion type, with seventy-five questions containing one hundred chances for error; it is scored on the basis of the number of errors made. The normal distribution of errors, as shown by experience, involves a range from 7 to 73, with a median of 28. The ninety-nine pupils who took the test in the preceding semester had a median of 28 and a mode of 29, while the twenty-nine pupils in the summer term had a median of 28 and a mode of 28. The distributions of A, B, C, D, and F marks are almost identical for the two groups of pupils.

It would seem, then, from the data secured in the Garfield High School that the scholarship of pupils in the summer high school is equal or superior to that of pupils in the regular school sessions. If the situation in this school is typical, this finding and the favorable finding concerning health lead to the general conclusion that summer high schools can no longer be justly condemned as injurious to the health of the pupils who attend or as inferior in scholarship to the regular school sessions.

## SCORING THE CONTINUITY TEST

ROBERT W. NESMITH

McKinley Junior High School, Racine, Wisconsin

The November, 1926, issue of the *School Review* contained a very interesting discussion of continuity tests in history by Howard E. Wilson.<sup>1</sup> He suggested tests of the following type.

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONALITY

Number the following events in the order of their occurrence:

- The beginning of the Crimean War
- The establishment of the German Empire
- Prussia and Austria's war on Denmark
- The coup d'état of Napoleon III
- The beginning of the *Zollverein*
- The establishment of the Second French Republic
- The beginning of the Franco-Prussian War
- The Seven Weeks' War
- The establishment of the Kingdom of Italy<sup>2</sup>

Mr. Wilson made some very pertinent statements with regard to the value and the requirements of continuity tests. In commenting on some of the difficulties to be met, he pointed out the problem of devising an effective method of scoring tests of this type. He suggested the following method. "Place a key beside the pupil's numbering. Subtract from the correct numbering in all cases in which the pupil has given the item a ranking lower than that on the key. Add the results to obtain the number of errors, that is, the number of incorrect relations. When this number is subtracted from the perfect score of 20, the pupil's score is obtained."<sup>3</sup> Multiplying the score by 5 would give a score on the usual basis of 100 for perfect.

A little experimenting with this method of scoring will, the writer

<sup>1</sup> Howard E. Wilson, "The Continuity Test in History-teaching," *School Review*, XXXIV (November, 1926), 679-84.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 680.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 684.

believes, show that it very often produces most unsatisfactory results. Table I presents a few cases as examples. This table shows nine items as they might be numbered by twelve pupils. The asterisks indicate the items that are out of their proper positions with relation to the items which follow. The scores are those which the pupils would receive if Mr. Wilson's plan for scoring were used and the scores multiplied by 5. It seems to the writer that Mr. Wilson's method of scoring would give very unfair results. For example, Pupil 3, who has a correct understanding of the time relations of all

TABLE I  
POSSIBLE NUMBERING OF NINE ITEMS BY TWELVE PUPILS

ITEM	PUPILS											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.....	1	2*	9*	3*	9*	9*	2*	9*	9*	9*	9*	9*
2.....	2	1*	1	2*	8*	8*	1*	8*	8*	8*	8*	8*
3.....	3	3	2	1*	1	7*	4*	7*	7*	7*	7*	7*
4.....	4	4	3	4	2	1	3	6*	6*	6*	6*	6*
5.....	5	5	4	5	3	2	6*	1	5*	5*	5*	5*
6.....	6	6	5	6	4	3	5*	2	1	4*	4*	4*
7.....	7	7	6	7	5	4	8*	3	2	1	3*	3*
8.....	8	8	7	8	6	5	9*	4	3	2	1	2*
9.....	9	9	8	9	7	6	7*	5	4	3	2	1*
Score.....	100	95	60	90	30	10	75	0	0	0	0	0

\* Out of proper position with relation to the items which follow.

the items except one, makes a lower score than does Pupil 4, who is mistaken about three items. Pupil 7, who is very badly confused as to the exact order in which the various events occurred but who seems to have some idea of which events occurred first and which occurred last makes a higher score than does Pupil 3. Pupil 8, who understands the order of five of the items, makes a score of 0 and is no better off than Pupil 12, who has numbered all the items wrong.

As Mr. Wilson pointed out, it is difficult to devise an exact method of scoring continuity tests which can be easily applied. The writer has long been using tests of this type and has tried various methods of scoring the papers. No plan that he has yet devised gives entirely satisfactory results. The method which has seemed most fair is as follows: The pupils exchange their papers for mark-

ing. In marking the papers, the pupils first give each item its correct number. Then each pupil asks himself: Is 2 below 1, that is, anywhere below 1, not necessarily immediately below? Is 3 below 2? Is 4 below 3? Is 5 below 4? There are eight such questions which the pupil asks himself, and for each question the answer to

TABLE II  
SCORES OF TWELVE PUPILS UNDER METHOD OF SCORING  
SUGGESTED

Pupil	Score	Pupil	Score
1.....	100	7.....	50
2.....	88	8.....	50
3.....	88	9.....	38
4.....	75	10.....	25
5.....	75	11.....	13
6.....	63	12.....	0

which is affirmative he records  $12\frac{1}{2}$ . Table II shows the scores which would be made under this method of scoring by twelve pupils who numbered nine items in a test as shown in Table I.

This method is not an altogether accurate method of scoring, but it seems to be more accurate than that suggested by Mr. Wilson. Continuity tests are of such value that it seems worth while to center attention on efforts to discover a proper means of scoring them.



## WHAT ARE THE VOCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES?

NORA E. DODSON

Senior High School, Hazleton, Pennsylvania

Extra-curriculum activities, by developing initiative and leadership and by imparting necessary information, may offer real vocational possibilities to the pupils participating. Furthermore, the adviser who carefully directs these activities and develops the special talents of boys and girls so that, through a realization of their abilities and preferences, they are enabled to select worthy vocations and see them not as isolated jobs but as real callings worthy of their very best finds the directing of these activities rich in possibilities.

An adviser should be sufficiently equipped as to background and training to know the qualifications that are necessary for success in the vocation toward which an activity may be directed. He must be able also to enter into the spirit of the young people whom he is attempting to guide.

Such an adviser in charge of an art club, for example, will see numerous channels into which to direct the talents of the pupils. While painting or sculpture requires a high degree of talent, there are lesser degrees of artistic skill which may be applied in less exalted, perhaps, but just as worthy vocations, such as costume design, dressmaking, millinery, and advertising. There is, too, the drawing of cartoons. This is a limited field, but the extra-curriculum activity more than the more closely restricted curricular program is conducive to the development of the unique talent of the individual pupil. A pupil may also become interested in window-decorating. Although it is obvious that an art club would not by any means provide complete preparation for any of the vocations mentioned, there are almost unlimited possibilities for directing artistic tastes and inclinations into lucrative occupations.

The school assembly affords another possibility. If there are vocational talks by competent speakers, or films portraying conditions in various occupations, or active pupil participation in dramatics, debates, or other activities of the assembly, much valuable knowledge may be imparted, and permanent vocational interests may perhaps be aroused.

Social-welfare clubs may arouse in certain types of girls a desire for active work in charitable organizations. The work may be that of secretary, involving, of course, appropriate training, or it may be that of nurse in an organization such as the Red Cross, where, again, the need of special training is obvious. The point is that participation in the activities of such clubs may arouse in pupils a desire to perform some of the broader social services of life, thus leading them into truly noble vocations.

Foreign-language clubs may, by increasing conversational ability, lead to further study of a language, which the individual may eventually teach. Or he may be a valuable employee of a firm dealing with foreigners or with a foreign country, such as a bank, a brokerage company, a store, or a manufacturing company.

Music clubs also furnish possibilities of vocational guidance. In a high school known to the writer, several boys discovered their latent talent through membership in the school orchestra, went to higher schools of music, and fitted themselves for positions as teachers or directors of music.

School publications are a source of inspiration to many pupils. By planning the mechanical details, a boy may find that he desires to become a printer. Or he may learn business methods and financial principles which may arouse his latent business abilities, and, though he may not become a journalist, he may be guided into congenial work in the business world. Moreover, the work of writing for school publications may cause young people to discover that they have creative talents of which they were unaware.

For the scientifically minded, there are various clubs which can influence them to enter special fields, such as that of electricity. The pupils may, of course, receive such impetus from the curricular work, but the club is freer. It provides opportunity for more origi-

nal work by the individual; hence, in it he finds a readier outlet for his interests than in the more formal class activity.

Finally, there are vocational clubs, formed for the express purpose of guiding young people into the right vocation. Although many schools have a definitely planned program for vocational guidance, thus making it a part of the curriculum, the possibilities in these extra-curriculum clubs are exceptionally good. Pupils interested in the same vocation may form a club to study their common problems more intensively. Moreover, if they are working voluntarily, their actions are more likely to be spontaneous. Thus, the adviser, enabled to form a better judgment of the pupils' temperaments and habits, can advise them more advantageously. Obviously, much of the vocational information must be imparted by the adviser, but pupil activity can be secured by having within the club a number of pupil committees selected by club members, the duties of which are to secure information. The club may conduct excursions to various industrial plants, where the members may observe actual working conditions. The adviser should plan these excursions carefully so that the pupils will know definitely what to look for.

The pupils must also be directed into some study of themselves so that they may gain a realization of their abilities and aptitudes. The adviser must have in mind the thorough education of the individual as well as training for a particular vocation, important as that is.

There are other clubs which may be called vocational although they do not impart industrial or professional information. They may deal with home training, that is, with the proper way to furnish a home or the correct way to set a table. Such a club may definitely direct a girl's interests toward the very real vocation of home-making, although it is wise to encourage every pupil to plan also for an additional occupation.

Ideally, every pupil should be an active member of some club. The over-social pupil, who already has a wide diversity of interests, should be kept from overdoing; the unsocial pupil, who is particularly in need of the influence of a club, should be encouraged to find the group in which he can be at ease. Aside from the specific occupa-

tional information afforded, there are certain general vocational advantages for those actively participating. Among these is the opportunity to cultivate poise and ability to work with others.

The activities of each club should be as closely related to real life-situations as possible so as to lead boys and girls to see that school is essentially a part of life. As a result, they will enter into its many activities with greater zest, keener enjoyment, and more definite purpose. They will be inspired to do their best, developing themselves in the direction of their greatest interests. They will thus fit themselves for the work they like best to do, which is, after all, the work they should choose as a vocation.

## THE CORRECTIVE VALUE OF REPEATED TRANSLATIONS

BLAKE CRIDER

Moreland School, Shaker Heights, Cleveland, Ohio

It is the practice of many teachers of foreign languages to recommend to their students that they go over the assigned translation more than once. The first translation of a passage permits the student to become familiar with new words and phrases. A second or third translation of the same passage would link these words and phrases together in an idiomatic form in addition to correcting any mistakes that had been made in the previous translation or translations. This article is a report of an experiment to determine whether there is any corrective value in this practice.

The subjects for the experiment were ninety-seven students composing three classes of first-year Spanish in Albion College, Albion, Michigan. The material consisted of nine selections of Spanish prose of approximately eighty-five words each.

The procedure was as follows: One class translated each selection once; another, twice; and the third class, three times. Each translation followed immediately the preceding one. The translations were written on paper provided by the experimenter. The students were permitted to use their Spanish-English vocabularies.

The word "translation" is not used to denote the free reading of a passage, commonly called "reading for thought." The students were required to translate each sentence as correctly as possible with respect to grammar. The papers were checked for two principal types of errors: (1) grammatical errors, consisting in the use of the wrong person, number, case, or tense; (2) vocabulary errors, consisting of the use of extraneous words and phrases, the omission of words, and the use of wrong words.

Individual differences were eliminated in two ways. First, by a system of rotation the class which translated once one day translated twice the next day and three times the following day; the procedure

was then repeated. Second, the students were divided into three ability groups—good, poor, and average—on the basis of the number of errors made on the first translation of each selection. The highest

TABLE I  
AVERAGE NUMBER OF ERRORS MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN EACH  
CLASS ON EACH SELECTION IN THE FIRST, SECOND,  
AND THIRD TRANSLATIONS

	First Translation	Second Translation	Third Translation
Selection A:			
Class 1.....	7.5	7.8	7.4
Class 2.....	5.6	6.5	
Class 3.....	7.4		
Selection B:			
Class 1.....	13.0		
Class 2.....	11.0	12.0	10.0
Class 3.....	13.0	16.6	
Selection C:			
Class 1.....	5.7	6.3	
Class 2.....	6.4		
Class 3.....	6.0	5.6	5.4
Selection D:			
Class 1.....	9.2		
Class 2.....	8.0	6.1	
Class 3.....	7.7	7.9	7.5
Selection E:			
Class 1.....	8.4	6.9	7.2
Class 2.....	9.2		
Class 3.....	8.6	7.9	
Selection F:			
Class 1.....	7.7	7.3	
Class 2.....	8.1	7.6	7.9
Class 3.....	10.4		
Selection G:			
Class 1.....	16.4		
Class 2.....	15.0	17.3	
Class 3.....	15.8	15.3	15.4
Selection H:			
Class 1.....	10.1	9.5	11.0
Class 2.....	7.2		
Class 3.....	10.5	11.5	
Selection I:			
Class 1.....	11.3	11.6	
Class 2.....	8.6	9.3	9.2
Class 3.....	12.8		

25 per cent and the lowest 25 per cent comprised the good and poor groups, respectively. The remaining 50 per cent constituted the average group.

Table I shows the average number of errors per student in each

class for each of the nine selections. A comparison of the scores on the first translation with those on the second translation shows that in ten of the eighteen cases where there were two translations of the same passage the average number of errors in the second translation is greater than the average number of errors in the first translation. The differences range from 0.3 for Selection A to 3.6 for Selection B. The average number of errors per student in the first translation in the eighteen cases combined is 9.2. The average for the second translation is 9.6. The small difference of 0.4 would indicate that there is little difference between the quality of performance in the first translation and the quality of performance in the second translation.

Table II shows the quality of performance of the students in the good, average, and poor groups in the first and second translations. The total number of errors made by the good group is greater in the second translation than in the first translation in the case of eight of the nine selections. Of the ninety-eight students<sup>1</sup> in this classification, fifty-one, or approximately 50 per cent, made more errors in the second translation than in the first translation; twenty-four students made fewer errors; and twenty-three students made the same number of errors. In the case of the average group the number of students who made more errors in the second translation than in the first is approximately the same as the number of students who made fewer errors. Although the total number of errors made by the poor group is almost the same for the two translations, the number of students who made fewer errors in the second translation than in the first is greater than the number of students who made more errors. As a whole, however, the data seem to indicate that the quality of performance in the second translation is approximately the same as the quality of performance in the first translation.

Table I shows the average number of errors made in the second and the third translations. In four of the nine cases in which a comparison can be made, the average number of errors in the

<sup>1</sup> In this paragraph the word "translations" should, as a matter of fact, be used instead of the word "students" since there is duplication of students in the total number, it being possible for a single student to be represented as many as nine times, once for each selection.



third translation is greater than the average number of errors in the second translation. The average number of errors per student in the

TABLE II

DATA WITH REGARD TO THE NUMBER OF ERRORS MADE ON EACH SELECTION IN THE FIRST AND SECOND TRANSLATIONS BY THE STUDENTS IN EACH ABILITY GROUP

SELECTION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE FIRST TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE SECOND TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE MORE ERRORS IN THE SECOND TRANSLATION THAN IN THE FIRST	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE FEWER ERRORS IN THE SECOND TRANSLATION THAN IN THE FIRST	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE THE SAME NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE FIRST AND SECOND TRANSLATIONS
Good Group						
A.....	16	40	62	9	0	7
B.....	17	73	126	11	5	1
C.....	14	24	34	6	3	5
D.....	11	43	43	5	4	2
E.....	9	21	24	2	1	6
F.....	6	21	28	4	2	0
G.....	6	42	50	4	1	1
H.....	9	28	35	6	3	0
I.....	10	31	36	4	5	1
Total..	98	323	438	51	24	23
Average Group						
A.....	32	210	238	18	13	1
B.....	29	332	361	15	13	1
C.....	31	195	174	12	15	4
D.....	21	165	147	6	12	3
E.....	22	172	126	1	19	2
F.....	21	170	160	8	9	4
G.....	25	361	407	15	8	2
H.....	27	224	213	12	13	2
I.....	25	220	267	19	5	1
Total..	233	2,049	2,093	106	107	20
Poor Group						
A.....	11	137	120	2	8	1
B.....	14	314	305	9	4	1
C.....	11	119	115	5	5	1
D.....	8	104	92	1	6	1
E.....	10	144	154	5	5	0
F.....	10	119	125	2	7	1
G.....	7	171	168	3	3	1
H.....	14	274	277	7	6	1
I.....	7	186	136	0	7	0
Total..	92	1,568	1,552	34	51	7

second translation in the nine cases combined is 9.12. For the third translation the average is 8.93. The difference of 0.19 shows the similarity in the quality of performance in the two translations.

Table III shows the quality of performance of the three ability groups in the second and third translations. The good group of students made fewer errors in the third translation than in the second on seven of the nine selections. Twenty-four of the forty-two students<sup>1</sup> in this group made fewer errors in the third translation than in the second; nine students made more errors; and nine students made the same number of errors in the two translations. There is a similarity in the total number of errors made in the two translations by both the poor group and the average group. Nevertheless, 50 of the 131 students in the average group and 23 of the 42 students in the poor group made more errors in the third translation than in the second translation.

If there is any corrective value in repeating a translation, one would expect to find evidence of it in a comparison of the third and first translations, more especially when it is remembered that the same passage of eighty-five words was translated three times within one class period. Table I shows that in seven cases out of the nine the average number of errors in the third translation is smaller than the average number of errors in the first translation. The average number of errors per student in the first translation in the nine cases combined is 9.17; the average for the third translation is 8.93. The difference of 0.24 would indicate that there is little difference in the quality of performance.

For the good group of students, as shown in Table IV, the total number of errors for all selections is slightly greater in the third translation than in the first translation. Sixteen of the forty-two students<sup>1</sup> made more errors in the third translation than in the first translation, and nineteen students made fewer errors. In the case of the poor group, the total number of errors in the third translation is considerably smaller than the total number of errors in the first translation although fourteen students made more errors. The aver-

<sup>1</sup> In this paragraph the word "translations" should, as a matter of fact, be used instead of the word "students" since there is duplication of students in the total number, it being possible for a single student to be represented as many as nine times, once for each selection.

age group is about equally divided between improvement and deterioration.

TABLE III

DATA WITH REGARD TO THE NUMBER OF ERRORS MADE ON EACH SELECTION IN THE SECOND AND THIRD TRANSLATIONS BY THE STUDENTS IN EACH ABILITY GROUP

SELECTION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE SECOND TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE MORE ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION THAN IN THE SECOND	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE FEWER ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION THAN IN THE SECOND	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE THE SAME NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE SECOND AND THIRD TRANSLATIONS
Good Group						
A.....	5	19	18	2	2	1
B.....	10	67	47	2	6	2
C.....	4	17	11	1	3	0
D.....	5	14	12	0	4	1
E.....	4	13	11	1	3	0
F.....	2	13	13	0	0	2
G.....	3	23	19	0	2	1
H.....	5	21	14	1	3	1
I.....	4	11	14	2	1	1
Total..	42	198	159	9	24	9
Average Group						
A.....	13	97	86	4	9	0
B.....	19	216	190	7	10	2
C.....	18	105	107	10	5	3
D.....	12	97	91	3	7	2
E.....	12	64	73	5	7	0
F.....	13	100	106	5	2	6
G.....	10	155	140	5	2	3
H.....	18	139	158	7	8	3
I.....	16	151	147	4	10	2
Total..	131	1,124	1,107	50	60	21
Poor Group						
A.....	8	90	87	3	3	2
B.....	4	132	112	3	1	0
C.....	5	45	32	1	3	1
D.....	4	55	55	3	1	0
E.....	5	68	68	1	1	3
F.....	3	33	31	2	1	0
G.....	4	83	94	3	1	0
H.....	7	120	140	5	2	0
I.....	2	34	42	2	0	0
Total..	43	660	661	23	13	6

Table V summarizes data presented in Tables II, III, and IV. The averages are based on the total number of errors on all nine

TABLE IV

DATA WITH REGARD TO THE NUMBER OF ERRORS MADE ON EACH SELECTION IN THE FIRST AND THIRD TRANSLATIONS BY THE STUDENTS IN EACH ABILITY GROUP

SELECTION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE FIRST TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE MORE ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION THAN IN THE FIRST	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE FEWER ERRORS IN THE THIRD TRANSLATION THAN IN THE FIRST	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO MADE THE SAME NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE FIRST AND THIRD TRANSLATIONS
Good Group						
A.....	5	13	18	2	1	2
B.....	10	48	47	3	7	0
C.....	4	8	11	3	0	2
D.....	5	17	12	0	2	3
E.....	4	10	11	2	2	0
F.....	2	0	13	2	0	0
G.....	3	19	19	1	1	1
H.....	5	16	14	1	4	0
I.....	4	14	14	2	2	0
Total..	42	154	159	16	19	8
Average Group						
A.....	13	88	86	4	7	2
B.....	19	205	190	6	11	2
C.....	18	107	107	8	7	3
D.....	12	90	91	4	6	2
E.....	12	88	73	3	7	2
F.....	13	106	106	6	5	2
G.....	10	151	149	4	5	1
H.....	18	138	158	9	7	2
I.....	16	136	147	8	5	3
Total..	131	1,109	1,107	52	60	19
Poor Group						
A.....	8	99	87	2	5	1
B.....	4	116	112	3	1	0
C.....	5	57	32	0	5	0
D.....	4	55	55	2	2	0
E.....	5	78	68	1	3	1
F.....	3	36	31	0	2	1
G.....	4	99	94	2	2	0
H.....	7	136	140	3	2	2
I.....	2	42	42	1	1	0
Total..	42	718	661	14	23	5

selections. A comparison between any two translations shows a similarity in scores for each ability group. Since the average number of errors made in the first translation by the good group is comparatively small, it would have been necessary to eliminate the errors entirely in order to justify the conclusion that the repeated translations were worth the time and effort expended. It is apparent that the errors were not eliminated by this group of students. In the case of the poor students, the reduction in the average number of errors should have been greater in order to warrant the extra effort involved in repeated translations.

TABLE V  
AVERAGE NUMBER OF ERRORS PER STUDENT IN EACH ABILITY  
GROUP IN THE VARIOUS TRANSLATIONS

Translations	Good Group	Average Group	Poor Group
First.....	3.3	8.8	17.0
Second.....	4.5	9.0	16.9
Second.....	4.7	8.6	15.7
Third.....	3.8	8.5	15.7
First.....	3.7	8.5	17.1
Third.....	3.8	8.5	15.7

By way of conclusion, it may be said that, in general, comparisons of translations with preceding translations show very little improvement. The average number of errors in a repeated translation is very similar to the average number in the preceding translation. In other words, the corrective value is very slight. An analysis of the individual students shows that some made fewer errors, others made more errors, while others made the same number of errors; that is, for some there is corrective value in repeated translations. It is obvious, however, that there is no way for the teacher to predict who will profit by a second or third translation.

Several reasons may be advanced for the lack of improvement from translation to translation. A translation at any time may be largely a chance factor. The student has no idea of the meaning of some of the phrases, idioms, and sentences. He makes a guess or accidentally arrives at a seemingly plausible translation. In a second

translation he makes a different approach, with results entirely different from those in the first translation. This procedure in translating may be found among two types of students. The first type of students are those who focus their attention on the mechanical features of the passage with utter neglect and loss of the meaning. The grammar is perfect English, but the thought may be entirely foreign to the content. The student does not understand the ideas involved; nor does he realize the incongruous situation. When both form and content cannot be grasped within the same span of attention, it cannot be said that the student knows the language. With continued repetitions of the same passage, the student becomes familiar with the mechanical features, and the thought of the passage begins to come to the forefront of consciousness, with the result that the student's attention shifts from the form to the content of the passage. Then he may change his method of translation, with results different from those in either of the other translations.

The second type of students are those who can always approximately guess the ideas involved, those who do well under the direct method but who use their own words and phrases to fit the situation. The translations may vary from time to time even more than the translations of the first type of students.

It is the consistent student who can get the thought involved, who can render a passage grammatically perfect and in idiomatic English. Form and content are not antagonistic in his consciousness. Such a student has a complete understanding of the passage, and his translations do not vary from time to time.

From the data and conclusions it seems that intensive translation is not advisable. Certain expressions and idioms are new to first-year students, and it is possible that they would never get the correct translation without the expert guidance of the teacher. If the student could improve his translation each time he went over a passage, the secret of correct translation would be repetition, not instruction from well-trained teachers.

## GIVING THE HOME ROOM FAIR CONSIDERATION

SARAH ELIZABETH BUNDY

Jefferson High School, Los Angeles, California

Probably one of the most neglected and unregulated factors in secondary-school administration is the home room. Even in the literature on high-school topics this subject has been largely overlooked. Every question from the work of the custodian to the conduct of faculty meetings seems to have been given more space than that devoted to this one. The lack of printed material is, of course, merely indicative of a general indifference to the topic itself. Few persons—superintendent, principal, supervisors, or fellow-teachers—ever visit a home room for the purpose of giving helpful supervision or direction; and in most schools the home-room teacher is left largely to his own devices in adopting or executing plans that lead to profitable use of the home-room period. Small wonder, therefore, that assignment to a home room is regarded by many as an extra and unnecessary burden and made the target of many a complaint of overwork. Still smaller wonder that many teachers feel that they have done their full duty if they keep reasonable order during the home-room period and efficiently perform the clerical duties attached to the assignment.

While the clerical duties involved are vitally important and assume large proportions, especially in schools where the entire responsibility for recording the pupils' credits is delegated to the home-room teachers, the purpose of this article is not to discuss the home room as a factor in school administration. The aim is, rather, to present ways and means of utilizing the home room as a factor in the individual and group activities of the pupils.

The arrangements concerning the home-room period vary widely even in a single school system. A survey of the Los Angeles high schools revealed divergencies at every possible point of differentiation. The length of period varies from ten to forty minutes; some schools do not hold home-room meetings each day; a few schools



have no home-room periods at all. Likewise, the basis for grouping differs; grade, sex, course pursued, intelligence level, and various other factors determine the grouping.

The same survey disclosed equally wide variations in the use of the home-room period. In a school where no direction prevails save as the conscientious teacher adopts a plan for himself, the loss and waste are appalling. A very little calculation would show the financial loss to the taxpayer, not to mention the infinitely more serious loss of potential opportunity.

A study of the whole situation supplemented by interesting experiences in the conduct of different types of home rooms led the writer to undertake an experiment in the Jefferson High School, Los Angeles. The plan has been in operation for two years, and it has yielded some results of a gratifying nature.

The first step was, of course, to secure faculty co-operation. No office-made plan prescribed for general use could secure as satisfactory results as a plan worked out by teacher committees. Two faculty meetings were devoted in part to a discussion of the question, and a committee was appointed for further investigation. Each teacher was personally interviewed by a member of the committee. The following questionnaire was then circulated, and the replies were tabulated.

Home-Room Teacher \_\_\_\_\_ Home Room \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

1. What do you consider your greatest home-room problem?  
Check and add any not mentioned below.
  - a) Discipline.
  - b) Noise.
  - c) Talking.
  - d) Lack of courtesy.
  - e) Lack of desire to study.
  - f) Lack of interest in home-room discussions.
  - g) Lack of organization.
  - h) Lack of definite aim.
2. Indicate by letters corresponding to those in the above list problems for which you have some constructive suggestions.
3. During what period would it be convenient for a committee member to interview you?
4. Kindly state without reserve what you consider your greatest home-room accomplishment.

5. What do you consider valuable incentives to promote home-room interests? Check and add any not mentioned.
  - a) Merit system in home room.
  - b) Rating citizenship in home room.
  - c) Privilege seating in home room.
  - d) Self-rating for pupils in home room.
  - e) Other means of recognition of worthy efforts.
6. Do you think it advisable to rate citizenship on report cards?
7. Would you welcome bulletins with suggestions for profitable discussions in the home-room period?
  - a) How often? (Check answer.)
    - (1) Weekly.
    - (2) Fortnightly.
    - (3) Monthly.
  - b) On what subjects? (Check answer.)
    - (1) Current events.
    - (2) Manners.
    - (3) Moral questions.
    - (4) Entertainment.

The committee then evolved a definite statement of recommendations. The program involved two major features. The first was the adoption of a specific plan for the profitable use of the home-room period. The items in this plan are as follows:

1. Daily reading or delivery of all notices.
2. Supervised study with opportunity for individual interviews between pupils and teachers on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of each week.
3. School-paper day on Thursday with the privilege of reading the weekly issue; non-subscribers may use the time as a study period.
4. Special activities on Friday—discussion every other Friday on topics developed through the Presidents' Forum and programs of some type (pupil talent, parliamentary practice, or other activities) on the alternate Fridays.

The second major feature of the plan was the adoption of a system of ranking the home rooms. Each home room in the school is rated according to a specific formula. The ratings are grouped by grades and by relative standing in the whole school, and the record is published at the end of each ten weeks.

It is appropriate to give further details regarding two rather unique phases of the general program: the discussion plan carried on through the medium of the Presidents' Forum and the home-room ranking system.

Early each term officers are elected in each home room. Pupils

and advisers are urged that care be exercised in the selection of officers, and, generally speaking, the presidents well represent their respective groups. The presidents meet every other Wednesday during the home-room period under the chairmanship of the student-body president. The girls' vice-principal advises the president and supervises the conduct of the sessions, for skill is required to develop in the twenty-minute period a topic that will lead to profitable discussion on the following Friday, when each home-room president is expected to lead the discussion in his home room. He is advised to consult his home-room teacher, and he receives further help through mimeographed reports from the Findings Committee. This committee includes the president and the secretary of the student body; two members of the Presidents' Forum, who are appointed at the beginning of each term; and a fifth member who serves once only. This combination of permanent and temporary appointments in the committee insures increasing experience and efficiency. The committee meets after school on the Forum days and is responsible for the preparation of discussion outlines that will aid the presidents to lead their own groups.

The general subject "Setting Our Standards" was selected for discussion one year. The discussions dealt with such topics as "Setting Our Standards in School Loyalty," "Setting Our Standards in Courtesy," "Setting Our Standards in Scholarship," "Setting Our Standards in School Politics," "Setting Our Standards in Generosity," and "Setting Our Standards in Honesty." These topics were timed in relation to the school program, scholarship being discussed when report cards were due, generosity at the time of the Christmas charity drive, politics at the time of student-body elections, etc.

Two typical reports from the Findings Committee to the home-room presidents are as follows:

#### SETTING OUR STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LOYALTY

It is suggested that these various possibilities be brought up in the home room:

1. General discussion of what school loyalty really is.
  - a) Try to get members of your home room to define it in their own words.
  - b) Show that loyalty cannot be forced; people cannot be driven to be loyal.
  - c) Discuss things that make us loyal.

2. Discussion of the support of school regulations.
  - a) Scholarship; make this emphatic right now when unsatisfactory cards are coming out.
  - b) Self-government; show how necessary it is for every pupil to be loyal.
3. Discussion of enthusiastic support of school activities.
  - a) Support of athletics: Immediate need of attending every football game and encouraging the team to the last minute, winning or losing.
  - b) Support of other activities.
    - (1) Student-body assemblies: Both order and interest are needed.
    - (2) Club activities: Find a club that you would like to join.

#### SETTING OUR STANDARDS IN COURTESY

1. In the halls and on the campus—
  - a) By keeping the grounds clean.
  - b) By keeping the halls clear, quiet, and clean.
  - c) By obeying pupil-government officers.
2. In the cafeteria—
  - a) To teachers: courtesy in allowing them to go ahead, etc.
  - b) Between pupils—
    - (1) Keeping voices low and avoiding unnecessary noise.
    - (2) Avoiding crowding and pushing in line.
3. In the home room—
  - a) To teachers.
  - b) To presiding officer.
4. In assemblies—
  - a) To the speaker.
  - b) To others around you.
  - c) In manner of entering and going out.

Try to make the discussion practical and definite, and get many pupils to express their ideas.

While, of course, inexperienced pupil leaders cannot be expected to conduct forums in their own classrooms that realize all the possibilities of the topics discussed, they have approximated success and have certainly developed themselves to some degree in the process. A sense of responsibility has been engendered, and the "morale" of the home room has been vitally improved. Where the teacher has been actively interested and has wisely aided the president in his undertaking, ideal results have been achieved. Where the teacher has regarded the whole procedure as an unwelcome task and a useless activity, the president, however sincere and zealous, has been able to accomplish little, for in each case the president of the home room has needed the same type of direction that is given to

the pupil chairman of the whole group. The plan undoubtedly affords tremendous possibilities for development when it is carried on as a co-operative enterprise, and benefits will accrue to the whole school as a result of simultaneous consideration in the home rooms of a topic of importance to the entire student body.

The other unique phase of the general program—the adoption of a system whereby each home room is rated every ten weeks by a formula that includes the merit scores and the scholarship records of all the pupils in the room—furnishes a stimulating means of creating competition. The basis for rating is similar to the grade-point system used in many colleges. In addition to the scholarship standing, the merit score is a very definite factor in the record. The formula used is as follows:

$$\frac{(2 \times \text{Total merit record}) + 3A + 2B + C - (D + 2E)}{\text{Number enrolled in home room}}$$

Every ten weeks the record is published, the home rooms appearing in one list in the total order of rank and in another in the order of rank by grades. A copy of one list of the first type is shown on page 786.

By the same formula each pupil can determine his own rating and can compare it with the rating of the home room of which he is a member. Furthermore, he can compare his own rating with the average for the school and can readily discover whether he has helped to lower or to raise the record. In order to provide the element of competition necessary, the picture of the winning home room is published in the school paper and annual, and a permanent scroll which shows the record from term to term is displayed in the trophy case.

The whole home-room question is a vital one worthy of consideration by administrators and teachers. In the home room the pupils meet not as pupils in science, language, or practical arts but as boys and girls. The opportunity, therefore, of influencing them and of developing higher ideals of citizenship through this available channel presents itself to every socially minded educator.

Though emphasis in this article has been placed on two specifically planned aspects of the home-room program, the importance of pupil-teacher contacts during the periods of individual conference

must not be overlooked. The home-room teacher who regards her advisership as a sort of vicarious motherhood may make possible, on days allotted to study, a type of personal interview with pupils that shall serve as one of the most helpful influences in the boys'

HOME ROOMS IN THE JEFFERSON HIGH SCHOOL RANKED  
ACCORDING TO FORMULA

Home Room	Rating	Home Room	Rating
109-A 10	208.2	114-B 10	202.0
160-A 11	208.2	46-A 11	201.0
243-A 12	207.4	61-A 11	201.0
221-A 11	207.3	106-B 10	201.0
62-B 12	206.6	108-B 10	201.0
49-A 10	206.0	135-B 10	200.0
202-S.D.*	205.4	58-B 9	200.0
118-A 10	205.3	1-B 10	199.6
232-B 10	204.8	2-B 10	199.5
47-A 11	204.7	138-B 10	199.2
117-P.G.†	204.5	203-S.D.*	198.9
148-B 10	204.2	25-B 11	198.6
94-B 11	204.1	101-B 10	198.2
133-A 11	204.1	110-Special	
193-B 11	203.9	—Boys	198.0
149-B 11	203.8	132-A 10	197.8
211-A 10	203.7	18-A 10	197.6
102-A 10	203.2	48-A 10	197.6
261-B 11	203.0	4-B 9	197.0
240-A 10	202.9	234-B 11	196.4
92-A 11	202.8	161-Special	
239-A 10	202.5	—Girls	194.1
259-B 10	202.5	111-Special	
17-B 10	202.4	—Boys	193.4
59-B 11	202.0	159-B 11	191.6
140-A 9	202.0		

\* Short-day pupils.

† Postgraduates.

and girls' entire high-school experience. Everything from "What vocation am I fitted for?" to "Should I pet?" may come within the range of her counsel. Educational and moral guidance of a most direct and intimate type may result. Often the detached, unguided youth may find in his home-room teacher the sympathy and understanding that he craves. An atmosphere may be created that justifies the name by which the meeting-place is designated.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*What is wrong with education?*—The academic ship has long been drifting from its social moorings, and the crew have been pleasantly busy with operating the craft without particular concern as to where they are going, if anywhere. So far as they think about the matter at all, their motto seems to be: The farther from the general society, the better for craft and crew. The term "academic" is coming often to be used as a working synonym of "irrelevant" or even "futile."

Institutions, like individuals, lose their youth and their plasticity. The ideas that developed in the early days become the dominating influences. Habits gain control. Although their labors were guided by a sense of purpose in the beginning, they lose this sense as the work becomes mechanized and perform their labors mechanically and relatively blindly. The world moves on. Its needs change, but the crystallized institutional labors do not change in needed ways.

This institutional calcification is broken up in various ways. The most frequent method through human history has been by means of wars and revolutions, which have simply swept away the old accumulations and have returned mankind to its primitive conditions to build anew. Sometimes young and vigorous rival institutions arise and simply through competition gain the field and supplant the old ones. In our day institutions are more and more being changed through the discoveries of science and their application to the labors of these institutions. As a final method may be mentioned the appearance of the "voice crying in the wilderness" which, trumpet-tongued, catches the ears of virile forward-looking persons and awakens in them a sense of responsibility and duty.

This plan of denunciation is the one used by Dr. Hart in his recent book.<sup>1</sup> His is the stern voice of the reprover, intent on awakening in the profession a sense of the irrelevancy and futility of the academic. Through 450 pages he views the situation from all sorts of social angles and hurls unpleasant adjectives at most of the things which loyal academists have lovingly cherished. These myopic gentlemen will be much pained because of their sense of the injustice of it all. They have been intellectual absentees from the social world as it is for so long a time that they have no proper sense of their futility. The accusations, therefore, appear to them to be quite gratuitous, false, and unfair. They do not

<sup>1</sup> Joseph Kinmont Hart, *A Social Interpretation of Education*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929. Pp. xx+458. \$4.50.



understand. They are quite oblivious of the nature of the shortcomings at which the author insistently points the accusing finger.

The book assumes that education is not an academic process apart from society but rather a social process of society. The author seems to view education not as the product of the schools but rather as the product of the entire round of the life of the growing boy or girl, of which the school life is a minor fraction. He seems to see the school as an auxiliary educational agency, and the general society as the major one.

It is an honest book; that is, the author has set down just what he sees without omissions or inclusions which are designed merely to gain or maintain favor. In this respect, it is an exceptional book in a field where shelves are sagging with unprofitable expositions of the obvious, which have been prepared with a view to keeping out every idea, however true, that might in any wise disturb anyone's academic serenity of mind.

For one who wishes to go straight to the point and get a proportioned view, the book is a bit irritating. It seems to be the musings of a man who is looking at the actual realities but mulling them over first from one angle and then from another, repetitiously, without particular order, sequence, or plan. The treatment is lacking in constructiveness. With disillusioned eyes, the author views the shortcomings of the actual and places them clearly before the reader, but the treatment is singularly reticent in actually picturing a fully socialized type of education which is accomplished by the general social process as assisted by schools which have found their auxiliary function. In great detail the author describes what is wrong, but in no such detail does he prescribe the remedy.

It is an excellent book for those experienced souls, long bound by habit, who are prepared for professional disillusionment and can profit by it. It is a thing much needed in the world today, and many are those who need it. For those just entering the profession, however, the reviewer would rather recommend readings that present a clear constructive socialized modernized program. For them the new may be made merely to supplant the old without the painful intermediate stage of disillusionment. For them the constructive method of educational science will be better than acrimonious denunciations by a critic of the outworn.

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FRANKLIN BOBBITT

*A child-centered curriculum for the junior high school.*—Traditional curriculums have survived numerous attacks from many angles and points of view.

The scientific analyst proposes to determine the activities and experiences that are worth while for children and adults and should therefore be utilized in school training, or he may be satisfied to analyze activities found within the traditional subjects. The psychologist demands objectives which are based on the nature of the child mind. The sociologist seeks for the means of social adjustment without much regard for the nature of the individual child. Finally, the exponent of creativeness finds his objectives in the natural tendencies of the

child to express himself through activities which are for him "joyous adventures."

The author of a recent book<sup>1</sup> clearly belongs to the last-named class of experts. All through his book he sees the junior high school as a school in which pupils enjoy themselves; the words "joy" and "joyous" and "adventure" predominate.

"Joyous," however, is not to be confused with "easy" any more than "hard" is synonymous with "disagreeable" or "stupid." "Children like intensive and hard work," the author says, "if it be adventurous and joyous; they hate stupid and disagreeable work whether it be hard or easy. Interest and effort are not only compatible; they are indeed essential to each other" (p. 22).

One can imagine the eagerness with which pupils would flock to junior high schools in which "joyous adventure" is promised and in which pupils work hard because they love work and wish nothing but more and more of it. There is still truth, however, the reviewer believes, in the old idea that "there is no learning without some pain." There should be "joyous adventure" in the work that everyone does, but neither school work nor business nor the professions are so organized as to insure continuous joy. Learning requires a self-disciplinary adjustment to tasks which are often displeasing in themselves but which lead to more permanent satisfactions than the word "joy" expresses.

The author consistently adheres to his philosophy, however, and the book is valuable to anyone who seeks a distinctly modern point of view. The break with the past is complete, although, as stated in the last chapter, "nothing has been proposed in this volume that is not already being effectively carried out in practice in some successful junior high school" (p. 426). As an experimental school, the junior high school has contributed enormously to the study of education, but in too many instances the contribution must be traced to very few schools. Too many junior high schools have reverted to traditional methods and the traditional curriculum.

Two quotations from the last chapter will indicate the extent to which the author has rejected the ideas of the past.

We have frequently done everything but grasp the all-important facts that the building and the books and the courses of study are always incidental factors in education and that creative experiences in which each child's urge for self-expression finds its opportunity alone constitute positive education [p. 427].

The big scholastic factory engaged in mass production at low cost is giving way to an individualized child-centric creative environment [p. 430].

Such is the philosophy underlying the discussion. The many practical suggestions and the proposed curriculum based on this philosophy are worthy of critical study both by those who have a similar philosophy and by those who may differ radically.

<sup>1</sup> Philip W. L. Cox, *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. xxii+474.

The earlier chapters describe a core curriculum for all junior high school pupils. There are seven divisions, each discussed in a separate chapter. Throughout the seven chapters an attempt has been made to fuse curricular and extra-curriculum activities into a unified whole and also to disregard the separate subjects as they are commonly thought of in school practice. Education for associational living calls for the reconstruction of educational policies and practices in accordance with a vision of education as a social process. The home-room clubs, classes, teams, student councils, and even the "gang" are to have their parts in this process. Social-study courses should be organized on a problem and project basis, using geography, history, and civics as needed in order to develop proper civic attitudes and knowledges. Wholesome living demands, of course, numerous health activities, but healthy children should not be made "health conscious," and no school can afford to permit unhealthful conditions in and around the building. Every home-room teacher becomes a health supervisor. Inter-scholastic and intramural athletics are both indorsed; teams for the former should be recruited from class teams.

The entire field of English usage becomes simply an exercise ground for the diagnosis and removal of individual difficulties. The language-expression arts are largely intrusted to projects, as suggested by Driggs and the course used at the Blewett Junior High School in St. Louis. Projects are also largely used in the chapter on science and mathematics. The "moon" project described in this chapter seems to the reviewer to be, after all, a mere collection of information about the moon rather than a project that calls for the exercise of "reasoning power." In the case of the practical arts, the position taken seems quite consistent with that of some of the more modern writers. The question which might occur to the reader, however, relates to the extent to which the school should substitute for the home in practical-arts training. Sound objections are advanced to elaborate specialized prevocational or vocational shops in the junior high school, which make for uniformity and discourage self-direction.

It seems to the reviewer that the most inadequate chapter of all is the one in which the author considers appreciations. Appreciations seem to be spread all over the curriculum but everywhere to be incidental goals, to which the teachers are led by the interests of the pupils. Perhaps the teacher is intended to be a sort of glorified personification of appreciations in general, not a leader in any true sense. For example, in literature, it seems that the pupils are to study only those things which they already appreciate. No appreciations are to be superimposed; it would appear, therefore, that there is to be no consistent effort to lead pupils into new appreciations as they go through the school system. Again, "it is of the utmost importance that the atmosphere of the school library be conducive to browsing among books and magazines" (p. 174). The school that develops appreciations from "browsings" at random by pupils is an extraordinary institution. The thought occurs that there is no reason why appreciations may not be definitely sought in a systematic manner through a properly organized program.

"Hospital classes" are advocated as a means of overcoming individual deficiencies. The many suggestions offered are worth noting.

Elective opportunities are given extensive attention in six chapters. As the pupil advances into the eighth and ninth years, his elective opportunities are increased, and he is encouraged but not required to select fields of study in which he has acquired an interest or for which he seems to be especially fitted. The author finds little justification for following the traditional curriculum of the ninth grade in the four-year high school so far as foreign languages and mathematics are concerned. Most of the electives are intended for the pupils who show better than average ability. Pupils who will leave at the end of the junior high school are encouraged to elect a course in elementary business practices of a prevocational nature. Many such courses have been unsuccessful, but in principle the course is justifiable. It should be so arranged as to have primarily general educational value, not necessarily immediate usefulness in any given vocation.

"Colleges keep hands off" is the slogan of a chapter on college-entrance requirements. Very strong arguments are presented against the domination of either the senior or the junior high school curriculum by college-entrance requirements. Probably most educators in the public-school field will agree with the arguments advanced.

In considering the administration of the curriculum, the author shows the fallacy in promotion by subject and promotion based on the "covering of ground." He pleads for advisement and guidance and flexibility of administration to make possible the necessary promotion adjustments.

A final quotation summarizes most of the main points of the book.

Rigid departmentalization of instruction and rigid grading of pupils are both undesirable. . . . The junior high school should be conceived to be a unit. For the core-curriculum experiences, there is little sequence. There is little need for a high degree of subject specialization in teacher preparation; rather is specialization in child guidance needed. There is not much reason for grade differentiation in the language arts or in appreciations or in practical arts or in health practices [pp. 411-12].

The author represents a philosophy of education that has a wide and enthusiastic following, and, while many will not agree with him, no one who hopes to understand the junior high school as it is or as it might be should fail to read the book.

H. E. DEWEY

*Practices in English usage.*—A new book bears the attractive title *English in School and Out*.<sup>1</sup> One must confess to a little disappointment, however, in searching for a treatment of those practical out-of-school applications of English promised by implication in the concluding words of the title. No doubt all good English instruction is applicable in a much wider field of experience than the im-

<sup>1</sup> Roy Davis and William H. Cunningham, *English in School and Out*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. viii+470. \$1.40.

mediate activities of school life, but one is led to expect a greater emphasis on out-of-school situations than that which appears throughout the book. One of the purposes stated in the Preface is "to give them [the pupils] exercises in talking and writing that carry the tang of everyday life" (p. iii). An examination of some of the exercises leaves much to be desired in this respect.

Another purpose stated by the authors has been more successfully accomplished, namely, "to offer pupils a text they will be interested to read" (p. iii). The authors have brightened the treatment of familiar topics by the frequent use of striking metaphors and other appropriate comparisons and illustrations. The following paragraph, which introduces the pupil to "Unity, Coherence, and Emphasis," is a fair sample of the style of the book.

Fearful words, you say. But pause, take a deep breath, and have at them. You may as well conquer them right now, for around them our whole book is built. They are the structural steelwork of our building [p. 13].

The book is divided into two parts, sentences, paragraphs, words, grammar, punctuation, and letter-writing being included in Part I and other matters of form, talking, reading, humor, etc., being reserved for Part II. The authors state that the subjects in Part II "are obviously also a part of the first division, but the discussion . . . would delay too long a most important duty of any book on English composition—getting students at once to talking and writing" (p. v). The reviewer feels, however, that the continual emphasis throughout the book on unity and coherence would have been strengthened if the authors had given these principles greater consideration in establishing and organizing the divisions of the book.

This new textbook in composition does not represent a new interpretation of the English problem. It presents the standard materials of earlier composition textbooks with a little more grace and ease of expression than is commonly found in textbooks. "The text is uncompromising," say the authors, "in its intention of following that long-traveled, strait and narrow path which alone leads to correct expression" (p. vi). A recognition of newer points of view in education is apparent, however, in the functional treatment of grammar and in the definite and objective character of many of the exercises, or "tests." The three chapters on grammar constitute one of the best sections of the book.

ROY IVAN JOHNSON

HARRIS TEACHERS COLLEGE, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

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*An introduction to educational theory and practice.*—The problem of proper sequence in the organization of subject matter is no less vexatious in the field of educational theory than in any other field. At the present time the program for initiating the teacher is extremely varied. History of education, principles of teaching, introduction to psychology, and various other courses have been designed for the performance of this function. Recently there have been many efforts to organize better orientation or introductory courses, which would provide

the student with a broader educational background. In a recent contribution<sup>1</sup> to this field Professor Paul Klapper presents a comprehensive overview of contemporary education.

The purpose of the book, as stated by the author, is "to co-ordinate the accepted principles of social and psychological studies and to indicate their significance for education today" (p. vii). He introduces not only social and psychological principles but also biological and economic interpretations. It is apparent that the scope of the book is exceedingly broad. It includes materials from sociology, psychology, biology, mental hygiene, and educational method.

The author's point of view with respect to the purpose of education can be described best in his own words: "That education, then, is best which gives the individual the freest possible development consistent with social welfare" (p. 6). Throughout the book this point of view is consistently maintained in evaluating and interpreting the materials at hand.

The process of education is conceived as a series of adjustments, and the book is organized in major units which deal in turn with physical adjustment, social adjustment, economic adjustment, and mental adjustment. At first thought, the purpose of education as stated in the foregoing paragraph and the process of education as here presented may seem to be somewhat antagonistic. "Adjustment" is defined by the author, however, as a dynamic and aggressive procedure, not as a passive and static condition. Adjustment through the modification of the environment rather than through the modification of the individual is emphasized, the sole criterion being social welfare.

The discussion of physical adjustment is prefaced by certain biological principles and theories, and an interesting parallel is drawn between the development of special organs with specialized functions in the higher animals and the development of complex, interrelated, and specialized agencies in modern civilizations. The body of the discussion has to do with the health program of the school. Of particular interest are the comparative theories of play which are presented and evaluated and the discussion of the use and abuse of athletics in the public school.

Two agencies for social adjustment are suggested. In connection with the first—the curriculum—a large body of material is presented with reference to its meaning, organization, construction, adaptation, and evaluation. The second agency—pupil activity—is discussed in terms of school discipline, pupil self-government, and extra-curriculum activities.

In discussing economic adjustment, the author presents in a clear and forceful manner the need for vocational education and for various forms of guidance and the educational implications of such education and guidance. Social implications are evident as well as economic considerations.

Mental adjustment occupies the major part of the author's organization. Approximately one-half of the book is devoted to this topic. The treatment of

<sup>1</sup> Paul Klapper, *Contemporary Education: Its Principles and Practices*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xxvi+660. \$2.40.



inheritance and of the conflict of nature with nurture is particularly stimulating, as is the discussion of instinctive behavior. The laws of learning are summarized and aptly illustrated in a later chapter. The groundwork of educational method is firmly laid in a series of chapters devoted to the various types of recitations. In each instance the psychological principles involved are set forth, the procedure is outlined, and illustrative materials are presented. The balance between psychology on the one hand and method on the other seems highly commendable.

The general scheme of presentation is as follows: With respect to any given topic all the leading theories are surveyed in a comparative and critical manner. Certain conclusions or educational implications based on the analysis are then set forth. Finally, the methods and techniques in harmony with these conclusions are outlined and illustrated by classroom situations. Contrasts are clearly drawn by tabular arrangement of the items. Each chapter is followed by a well-chosen bibliography and a list of suggestive questions and problems.

The value of the book as reference material is enhanced by the very complete index and by the exact footnote references, which refer the reader to the original sources for experimental data and proposed theories.

To the reader who is looking for new developments and original contributions in the field of education, this book has little to offer except an analytical and somewhat unique point of view. It contains no new theories, no new methods, and no new data. As a comparative study of educational theory and practice, however, the book is a valuable contribution.

IVAN A. BOOKER

*A junior high school textbook on health.*—The authors of a new book<sup>1</sup> on health have assumed that pupils in the junior high school need to go on adding to their information about health and building fundamental health habits but that they are now in a period favorable to the cultivation of a spirit of inquiry and to the formation of a scientific attitude toward health. On this assumption, they have prepared a book that states principles, gives the evidence in most cases, and points out applications without overemphasizing them. They have included many things that stimulate interest and have shown how earlier opinions were arrived at and then overthrown after further experimentation.

Hard and fast lines are not drawn in the chapter divisions of the book, and some chapter headings are rather deceptive. However, about one-third of the space is devoted to chapters dealing predominantly with personal and home hygiene and one-fifth to morphology and physiology as a basis for hygiene and health instruction. The third largest amount of space (about one-seventh) is given to the general topic of community health, such phases as the work of departments of health, safe milk and water supplies, and health activities of a wide-awake community being treated.

Several chapters are unusual because of their subject matter or their treat-

<sup>1</sup> J. Mace Andress and Maud A. Brown, *Science and the Way to Health*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. viii+368. \$1.00.



ment of it. In spite of its title, "Valiant Health Knights" turns out to be an absorbing scientific chapter, in which the personalities and discoveries of such men as Leeuwenhoek, Pasteur, Trudeau, and Reed are attractively combined with information and principles pertaining to bacteria, bacterial diseases, and immunity. The authors recognize their indebtedness to de Kruif's *Microbe Hunters* for the spirit and some of the content of this chapter. "How the Cells Live" breaks away from the traditional treatment of respiration, nutrition, and circulation by explaining only the essentials of these processes from the point of view of the cells and with the aid of the process of osmosis, a treatment of which is often omitted entirely from textbooks. Later chapters present details with regard to digestion and foods. Heretofore neglected material on mental hygiene appears in concise and pointed paragraphs in the chapter entitled "Mental Health and How To Get It" and at opportune points in other chapters. "Looking Forward to Your Life Work" gives a generalized consideration of vocational health requirements and their effects.

The textbook is scientific. The suggestions for health habits and practices are, for the most part, reasonable and practical. The style is pointed and interesting. Some parts have sufficient assimilative material, while others are too much like summaries.

"The subject matter of the text and of the manual of experiments [published separately] has been tried out by the authors in actual school experience" (p. vii). The textbook itself is made more teachable by either a new-type test or a list of "Questions for Class Discussion" and "Interesting Things To Do" (practical exercises) at the end of each chapter. In a few cases specific references for further reading are given. This feature could have been extended with profit.

This refreshing and dependable treatment of health will prove attractive to both teachers and pupils in the junior high school.

J. C. MAYFIELD

*A new treatment of plane geometry.*—In recent years writers of mathematics textbooks have attempted to embody in their books the best thought of modern educators. A recent book<sup>1</sup> of this type has many features not found in other textbooks.

The development of the text material is psychological. The authors have not used long lists of definitions, axioms, and postulates to introduce the subject, the approach being made through intuitional geometry. The pupil is led to see many geometric principles in life about him; thus, he sees something of the real value of geometry, and his interest is aroused immediately.

The material is presented in such a way that only one new step is taken at a time. Easy proofs appear first; and, when the more difficult proofs are presented, they are introduced by easy transitions. Only one method of proof is presented at a time, and adequate practice is provided for each method.

The book is divided into eight units, each unit being followed by a compre-

<sup>1</sup> John C. Stone and Virgil S. Mallory, *Stone-Mallory Modern Plane Geometry*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+474. \$1.40.

hensive review. The review is followed by graded exercises, which serve to test the pupil's ability to apply the knowledge he has acquired in the preceding units. At the end of each second unit are timed tests. These tests include numerical exercises and multiple-choice, true-false, completion, matching, and construction tests. As pointed out by the authors, they are unique in a geometry textbook.

The book is attractive and contains a large number of fine illustrations. The figures are well drawn, and the material has been carefully arranged. In no case does the pupil have to turn back to find a figure while reading a proof. The book should appeal to teachers who are interested in a modern textbook in plane geometry.

C. A. STONE

*A source book in world-history.*—*Historical Selections*<sup>\*</sup> is not intended for continuous reading but is designed to furnish material for the study and discussion of the problems and questions which naturally arise in the class work in history and the social studies. Both in its material and arrangement, the book lends itself to comparative work. It is stated in the Preface that "a place may be found for a source book of the widest scope, covering the whole historical field and dealing with the cultural development of humanity in all ages for which we have written records" (p. iii). The editor is a sociologist as well as a historian and presents evidence for the study of "human beliefs, customs, and institutions."

In content, the selections are cultural in the sociological sense. The book represents the view that the historian must take as his province all phases of human development and that the student, to understand a past age, must study all phases of human activity. The editor's point of view is thus that of the "new history," and it will be noted that the material is particularly rich and varied in illustrating the economic and social development. The editor does not, however, neglect the development of the arts and sciences, philosophy and religion.

On close examination, the book proves to be a storehouse of valuable materials, quite astonishing in the amount and variety of its contents. It contains materials to illustrate the course in world-history and the courses in ancient history and in medieval and modern history. The interesting and unusual thing about the book is that all these materials on various periods of history are assembled under one cover. The book thus becomes a treasure-house of illustration for teachers of courses in the social studies, community life, and civic and economic problems. The Table of Contents suggests many interesting problems to the thoughtful teacher. What finer method of testing a student's knowledge of social facts and forces than by a comparative study of social institutions as they appear at different periods of history!

The method of arrangement is in part chronological and in part topical.

<sup>\*</sup>Hutton Webster, *Historical Selections*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xx+974. \$2.96.

The book presents the evidence for the great civilizations of the past and arranges the materials under the usual captions "economic," "social," etc. In this fashion the stage is set for a study of the great typical civilizations: the ancient Oriental, having its origins in the Near East; the Classical or Mediterranean; the Medieval or West European; the modern European and American; and the Far East, represented by India, China, and Japan, which is becoming in a very real sense the new Orient.

In the case of foreign languages, the selections are carefully made from the best translations. There are 575 selections. Necessarily, some of them must be short and disconnected except as united by unity of subject and content. The selections are annotated and provided with introductions; the explanations in the footnotes are not always easy of comprehension, however, and in some cases the phraseology will be difficult for the student. It should be emphasized that such a source book does not teach itself; it is intended for the teacher who knows what he wants to do with the source materials. The editor has not provided any helps for the teacher or exercises for the student. A teacher's manual would be a desideratum for the teacher with inadequate training and experience.

Of the making of source books, there seems to be no end, but for this book there is a definite field of usefulness. In senior high schools and in junior colleges it will be found useful. It should be duplicated for the school library. Its value will broaden and become defined with actual class use and the experience which comes with it. The usefulness of the book in any given situation will depend on the skill of the teacher in adapting it to the work of his classes.

ARTHUR F. BARNARD

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BREWER, JOHN M., and OTHERS. *Cases in the Administration of Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1929. Pp. xvi+304. \$2.50.
- BROOKS, FOWLER D. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. xxiv+652. \$3.00.
- Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education with a Series of Reports by Classroom Teachers Illustrating Ways and Means of Attaining These Objectives*. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1929. Pp. 188.
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- CRAWFORD, ALBERT BEECHER. *Incentives To Study: A Survey of Student Opinion*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1929. Pp. xii+194. \$5.00.
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- GERMANE, CHARLES E., and GERMANE, EDITH GAYTON. *Character Education: A Program for the School and the Home*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+260+224+x.
- HARTSHORNE, HUGH; MAY, MARK A.; and MALLER, JULIUS B. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. Studies in the Nature of Character, II. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xxiv+560. \$2.75.
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- LANCELOT, W. H. *Handbook of Teaching Skills*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1929. Pp. xii+198. \$2.00.
- LAZAR, MAY. *Diagnostic and Remedial Work in Arithmetic Fundamentals for Intermediate Grades*. New York: Board of Education, 1928. Pp. 204.
- MCGREGOR, A. LAURA. *The Junior High School Teacher*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1929. Pp. xvi+284. \$2.00.
- MARINE, EDITH LUCILE. *The Effect of Familiarity with the Examiner upon Stanford-Binet Test Performance*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 381. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 42. \$1.50.
- MATHIAS, MARGARET E. *Art in the Elementary School*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. xvi+180.
- MELVIN, A. GORDON. *Progressive Teaching: An Interpretation for the Guidance of Teaching in the Public Schools*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xii+272. \$2.00.
- MOORE, CLYDE B. *Citizenship through Education*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+320.
- SMITH, HARRY P. *Business Administration of Public Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+432. \$2.20.
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- SPEER, ROBERT K. *Measurement of Appreciation in Poetry, Prose, and Art, and Studies in Appreciation*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 362. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+78. \$1.50.
- VAN ALSTYNE, DOROTHY. *The Environment of Three-Year-Old Children: Factors Related to Intelligence and Vocabulary Tests*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 366. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+108. \$1.50.
- WALLIN, J. E. WALLACE. *A Statistical Study of the Individual Tests in Ages VIII and IX in the Stanford-Binet Scale*. Mental Measurement Monographs, No. 6. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co., 1929. Pp. viii+58. \$1.00.

## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ADELL, JAMES C., DUNHAM, ORRA OLIVE, and WELTON, LOUIS E. *A Biology Workbook*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. vi+326. \$1.32.
- AUSLANDER, JOSEPH, and HILL, FRANK ERNEST. *The Winged Horse Anthology*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1929. Pp. xxxii+670. \$1.50.
- BEUTEL, FREDERICK K., and REDIKER, CARMEN G. *Case Problems and Tests in Business Law*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. 108. \$0.52.
- FAIRCHILD, HOXIE NEALE. *An Approach to Literature*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1929. Pp. x+204. \$2.00.
- HALL, NORMAN H. *Remedial Lessons in Spelling*. Chicago: Hall & McCreary Co., 1929. Pp. 96. \$0.16.
- HARRISON, SALOMAY LAUDERDALE. *México simpático: Tierra de encantos*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+264. \$1.32.
- HILLAS, MARJORIE, and KNIGHTON, MARIAN. *An Athletic Program for High School and College Women*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1929. Pp. xii+90. \$2.00.
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- Typical Plays for Secondary Schools*. Edited by James Plaisted Webber and Hanson Hart Webster. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. vi+344. \$1.52.
- VALDÉS, ARMANDO PALACIO. *Marta y Marta*. Edited with notes, exercises, and vocabulary by Willis Knapp Jones and H. H. Arnold. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+332. \$1.16.
- WELLS, WEBSTER, and HART, WALTER W. *Modern Algebra: Third Semester Course*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. viii+266. \$1.32.
- WELTE, H. D., and KNIGHT, F. B. *Standard Service Geometry Work-Book*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1929. Pp. iv+74. \$0.44.
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